
UNIT 22 LEADERSHIP SYSTEMS AND ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

Leadership Systems and
Organizational Structure

Structure

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22.1 INTRODUCTION

Leadership studies gained much significance and importance over the last twenty years. This new interest is due to the sudden change and transformation that has taken place in the social, economic and political realms in the world. Due to the emergence of the Market and its interface with the government and communities, people playing leadership roles are needed. As a result, a large number of leadership schools and organizations have been created. Moreover, women have gained entry into all sectors and are leaving an imprint as leaders by breaking the patriarchal structure. Thus, women-led leadership systems and organizational studies have gained prominence. Leadership studies are of different types. They may be general, simplistic or applicable to all leadership styles. Yet other studies are more sophisticated. One will find qualitative and quantitative studies in this area. Generally, it is accepted that leadership is a complex process having multiple dimensions. Thus, women and other marginalized group leaders need training to make use of emerging opportunities to achieve prosperity, foster socioeconomic development, eradicate poverty and govern institutions with the active participation of persons in organizations and community members. In order to cater to the needs of the nations and the regions, a large number of leadership schools are needed and slowly they are being created in India. In developed countries leadership schools have been created exclusively to train elected women representatives in the science of governance and managing institutions. Several scholars have been involved in

both studying and implementing the process of capacity building exercises conducted for elected women representatives.

22.2 OBJECTIVES

After studying this Unit, you should be able to:

- define the concept of 'leadership' and its significance in the context of a gender perspective;
- describe the characteristics and traits of leadership;
- distinguish leadership systems in formal and informal organizations;
- explain the concept of organization, organizational structure, levels of organization and their significance; and
- analyze various types of organizational structure and its implications for achieving gender equity (types of internal organization, the role of management/ leadership, hierarchies, team work).

22.3 LEADERSHIP

Leadership is a key element in formal and informal organizational structure which includes the mechanisms for making, communicating and executing decisions and for selecting and training leaders and managers.

Leadership has been viewed from different points of view such as focus of group processes, personality perspectives, behavioural traits, power relationships, transformational processes and skills perspectives. Leadership is a critical management skill and focuses on the ability to motivate a group of people towards a common goal. Though leadership is defined in various ways with different perspectives, the components of leadership have certain common characteristics. They are:

- leadership is a process;
- leadership involves influence;
- leadership occurs in a group context;
- leadership involves goal attainment; and
- leadership is different from management.

Management relies more on planning, organizational and communication skills; and leadership relies on qualities such as integrity, honesty, humility, courage, commitment, sincerity, passion, confidence, positivity, wisdom, determination and compassion.

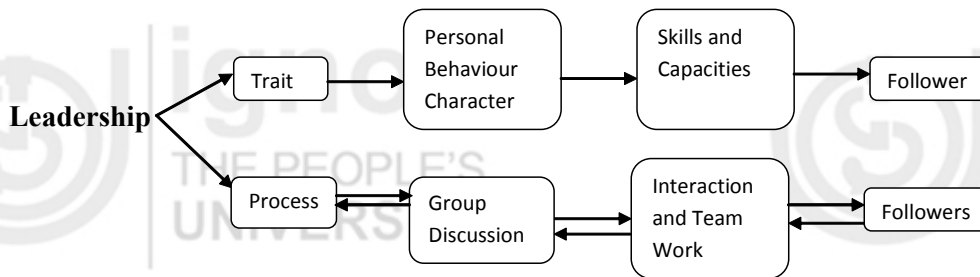
Thus, leadership is defined as a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal.

It is a process not a trait or characteristic of the leader but a transactional event that takes place between the leader and the led. It affects both the leader and the led in the process of interaction. It is not a one-way event but it is an interactive event.

Leadership involves influence and it is concerned with the way the leader affects his or her followers. Influence is the *sine quo non* of leadership. Without influence, leadership does not exist. Leadership involves influencing the group to achieve

common goals. Understanding of leadership is always in the context of the level of the followers and their relationship with the leaders. Both leaders and followers are involved together in the leadership process. The leaders take initiatives and link themselves with stakeholders. While analyzing the concept of leadership in the backdrop of the given definition and its explanation, issues have to be seen from the perspective of both leaders and followers or stakeholders.

Hence, leadership is a process as well as a trait. Scholars who deal with leadership from the perspective of traits argue that certain individuals have certain special, unique, innate, inborn qualities that make them true leaders. These qualities differentiate them from other ordinary persons or individuals.



Leadership defined by process suggests that leadership is a phenomenon that exists in context and makes leadership available to everyone and it is to be learned.

There are other arguments concerned with leadership. Leadership assigned is differentiated from leadership emergence. Some handle powers because they are being positioned whereas others influence their group members not because of their position but because of the personal traits and characteristics. So leadership is both a process and a trait.

For leadership, power is a key element and central concept which has got its capability to influence others. Power can be categorized into two types. They are personal and positional. Personal power is the capacity of a leader to exert influence over others. Positional power is the power a person derives from a particular office legitimately.

Leadership is equivated with management. Leadership handles people and institutions; it works for achieving the targeted goals as management. Many of the functions of leadership are similar to the functions of management.

Yet, for this Unit, we consciously take the argument and definition of leadership as process coupled with traits and assignment explaining the process whereby women leaders are selected to a position with certain earmarked responsibilities to be discharged by them. While discharging responsibilities, they have to constantly interact with people with the objective of involving them in collective decision making. Leaders, as we know, have certain key characteristics and traits which influence the whole process of development and democratic decision making.

Leadership has been studied through different theories namely contingency theory, path-goal theory and exchange theory with different approaches namely trait approach, skill approach, style approach and situational approach. In the new context, transformational leadership, team leadership, women in leadership and leadership ethics are important facets. With the earlier stated approaches, leadership systems in organization can be studied.

22.4 LEADERSHIP SYSTEMS IN ORGANIZATIONS

A leader in a formal, hierarchical organization, who is appointed to a managerial position, has the right to command and enforce obedience by virtue of the authority

of her position. However, she must possess adequate personal attributes to match her authority, because authority is only potentially available to her. In the absence of sufficient personal competence, a leader may be confronted by an emergent leader who can challenge her role in the organization and reduce it to that of a figurehead. However, only authority of position has the backing of formal sanctions. It follows that whoever wields personal influence and power can legitimize this only by gaining a formal position in the hierarchy with commensurate authority.

22.4.1 Leadership in Formal Organizations

An organization that is established as a means for achieving defined objectives has been referred to as a formal organization. Its design specifies how goals are sub-divided and reflected in sub-divisions of the organization. Divisions, departments, sections, positions, jobs and tasks make up this work structure. Thus, the formal organization is expected to behave impersonally with regard to relationships with clients or with its members. According to Weber's definition, entry and subsequent advancement is by merit or seniority. Each employee receives a salary and enjoys a degree of tenure that safeguards her from the arbitrary influence of superiors or of powerful clients. The higher her position in the hierarchy, the greater her presumed expertise in adjudicating problems that may arise in the course of the work carried out at lower levels of the organization. It is this bureaucratic structure that forms the basis for the appointment of heads or chiefs of administrative sub-divisions in the organization and endows them with the authority attached to their position.

22.4.2 Leadership in Informal Organizations

In contrast to the appointed head or chief of an administrative unit, a leader emerges within the context of the informal organization that underlies the formal structure. The informal organization expresses the personal objectives and goals of the individual members. Their objectives and goals may or may not coincide with those of the formal organization. The informal organization represents an extension of the social structures that generally characterize human life – the spontaneous emergence of groups and organizations as ends in themselves.

In pre-historic times, personal security, maintenance, protection and survival were major preoccupations. Now people, especially men, spend a major portion of their waking hours working for organizations. They need to identify with a community that provides security, protection, maintenance and a feeling of belonging continuing unchanged from pre-historic times. This need is met by the informal organization and its emergent or unofficial, leaders.

Leaders emerge from within the structure of the informal organization. Their personal qualities, the demands of the situation or a combination of these and other factors attract followers who accept their leadership within one or several overlay structures. Instead of the authority of position held by an appointed head or chief, the emergent leader wields influence or power. Influence is the ability of a person to gain cooperation from others by means of persuasion or control over rewards. Power is a stronger form of influence because it reflects a person's ability to enforce action through the control of a means of punishment.

22.4.3 Steps for Improving Leadership Systems

Some of the steps which could improve leadership systems include:

- Measuring and tracing trends in leadership effectiveness at all levels;
- Measuring and tracing trends in communication and its effectiveness;
- Defining task and behaviour expectations for all leaders;

- Holding all leaders to the same set of standards;
- Providing regular and immediate behaviour feedback;
- Recognizing, sharing and celebrating personal leadership success;
- Having regular team dialogue about good and bad behaviour;
- Defining and using a formal leadership development process;
- Increasing the capacity, capability and personal mind power; and
- Reducing decision cycle time and improving decision quality.

Check Your Progress Exercise 1

Note: a) Use this space given below to answer the questions.

b) Compare your answers with the one given at the end of the Unit.

1) What are the common characteristics of leadership?

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2) Explain the leadership system in informal organizations.

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22.5 ORGANIZATION

Organization is a social arrangement which pursues collective goals, controls its own performance and has a boundary separating it from its environment. The word itself is derived from the Greek word organon, itself derived from the better-known word ergon. There are a variety of legal types of organizations, including: corporations, governments, non-governmental organizations, international organizations, armed forces, charities, not-for-profit corporations, partnerships, cooperatives and universities. A hybrid organization is a body that operates in both the public sector and the private sector, simultaneously fulfilling public duties and developing commercial market activities. As a result, the hybrid organization becomes a mixture of a government and a corporate organization.

In the social sciences, organizations are an object of analysis for a number of disciplines, such as sociology, economics, political science, psychology, management and organizational communication. The broader analysis of organizations is commonly referred to as organizational structure, organizational studies, organizational behaviour, or organizational analysis. A number of different perspectives exist, some of which are compatible:

- From a process-related perspective, an organization is viewed as an entity being (re-) organized and the focus is on the organization as a set of tasks or actions;

- From a functional perspective, the focus is on how entities like businesses or state authorities are used;
- From an institutional perspective, an organization is viewed as a purposeful structure within a social context.

22.5.1 Organizational Structure

An organizational structure consists of activities such as task allocation, coordination and supervision, which are directed towards the achievement of organizational aims. It can also be considered as the viewing glass or perspective through which individuals see their organization and its environment. Many organizations have hierarchical structures, but not all. Organizations are a variant of clustered entities.

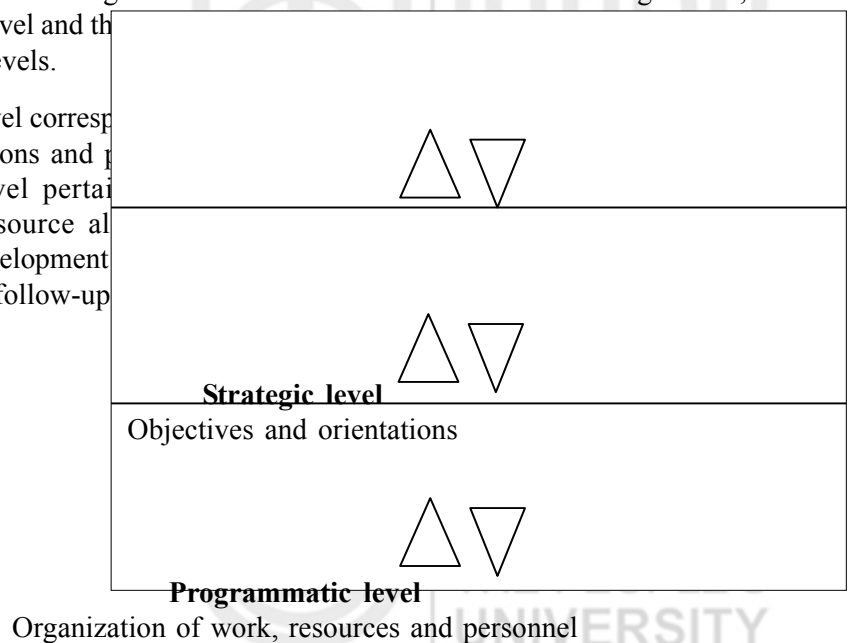
An organization can be structured in many different ways, depending on their objectives. The structure of an organization will determine the modes in which it operates and performs.

Organizational structure allows the expressed allocation of responsibilities for different functions and processes to different entities such as a branch, department, workgroup and individual. Organizational structure affects organizational action in two major ways. First, it provides the foundation on which standard operating procedures and routines rest. Second, it determines which individuals get to participate in which decision-making processes and thus to what extent their views shape the organization's actions.

22.5.2 Organizational levels

The three levels of managerial and administrative work are: the strategic level, the programmatic level and the operational level. The diagram below illustrates these levels and their orientations.

The strategic level corresponds to the organization's overall mission and its orientations and priorities. The second level pertains to the organization's internal structure, distribution, resource allocation and involves the development and evaluation and follow-up of the organization's activities.



22.5.3 Types of Organizational Structure

In this sub-section we will discuss types of organizational structure: pre-bureaucratic

structures; bureaucratic structures; post-bureaucratic structures; functional structures; divisional structures; matrix structure.

Pre-bureaucratic structures

Pre-bureaucratic (entrepreneurial) structures lack standardization of tasks. This structure is most common in smaller organizations and is best used to solve simple tasks. The structure is totally centralized. The strategic leader makes all key decisions and most communication is done by one-on-one conversations. It is particularly useful for new (entrepreneurial) business as it enables the founder to control growth and development. They are usually based on traditional domination or charismatic domination in the sense of Max Weber's tripartite classification of authority.

Bureaucratic structures

Bureaucratic structures have a certain degree of standardization. They are better suited for more complex or larger scale organizations. They usually adopt a tall structure. The tension between bureaucratic and non-bureaucratic structures is echoed in distinction between mechanistic and organic structures. It is complex and useful for hierarchical structure organizations, mostly in tall organizations.

Post-bureaucratic structures

The term of post-bureaucratic is used in two senses in the organizational literature: one generic and one much more specific. In the generic sense, the term "post bureaucratic" is often used to describe a range of ideas developed since the 1980s that specifically contrast themselves with Weber's ideal type bureaucracy. This may include management, culture and matrix management, amongst others. None of these, however, has left behind the core tenets of Bureaucracy. Hierarchies still exist; authority is still Weber's rational, legal type; and the organization is still rule bound.

Another smaller group of theorists have developed the theory of the Post-Bureaucratic Organization, providing a detailed discussion which attempts to describe an organization that is fundamentally not bureaucratic. Charles Heckscher has developed an ideal type, the post-bureaucratic organization, in which decisions are based on dialogue and consensus rather than authority and command. The organization is a network rather than a hierarchy, open at the boundaries (in direct contrast to culture management) with an emphasis on meta-decision making rules rather than decision making rules. This sort of horizontal decision making by consensus model is often used in housing cooperatives, other cooperatives and when running a non-profit or community organization. It is used in order to encourage participation and help to empower people who normally experience oppression in groups.

Functional structures

Employees within the functional divisions of an organization tend to perform a specialized set of tasks, for instance the engineering department in an IT company would be staffed only with software engineers. This leads to operational efficiencies within that group. However, it could also lead to a lack of communication between the functional groups within an organization, making the organization slow and inflexible.

As a whole, a functional organization is best suited as a producer of standardized goods and services at large volume and low cost. Coordination and specialization of tasks are centralized in a functional structure, which makes producing a limited number of products or services efficient and predictable. Moreover, efficiencies can further be realized as functional organizations integrate their activities vertically

so that products are sold and distributed quickly and at low cost. For instance, a small business could start making the components it requires for production of its products instead of procuring it from an external organization. But these are not only beneficial for organizations but also for securing employees' faith.

Divisional structures

Also called a “product structure”, a divisional structure groups each organizational function into a division. Each division within a divisional structure contains all the necessary resources and functions within it. Divisions can be categorized from different points of view. One might make distinctions on a geographical basis (a US division and an EU division, for example) or on product/service basis (different products for different customers: households or companies). In another example, an automobile company with a divisional structure might have one division for automobile parts, another division for sub-compact cars and another division for sedans.

Each division may have its own sales, engineering and marketing departments.

Matrix structures

A matrix structure groups employees by both function and product. This structure can combine the best of both separate structures. A matrix organization frequently uses teams of employees to accomplish work, in order to take advantage of the strengths, as well as make up for the weaknesses of functional and decentralized forms. An example would be a company that produces two products, “product a” and “product b”. Using the matrix structure, this company would organize functions within the company as follows: “product a” sales department, “product a” customer service department, “product a” accounting, “product b” sales department, “product b” customer service department, “product b” accounting department. Matrix structure is amongst the purest of organizational structures, a simple lattice emulating order and regularity demonstrated in nature. The following types of matrix structures can be identified:

- **Weak/Functional Matrix:** A project manager with only limited authority is assigned to oversee the cross-functional aspects of the project. The functional managers maintain control over their resources and project areas.
- **Balanced/Functional Matrix:** A project manager is assigned to oversee the project. Power is shared equally between the project manager and the functional managers. It combines the best aspects of functional and projectized organizations. However, this is the most difficult system to maintain since sharing power is a delicate proposition.
- **Strong/Project Matrix:** A project manager is primarily responsible for the project. Functional managers provide technical expertise and assign resources as needed.

Among these matrix structures, there is no best format; implementation success always depends on the organization's purpose and function.

Check Your Progress Exercise 2

Note: a) Use this space given below to answer the question.

b) Compare your answers with the one given at the end of the Unit.

1) Explain any one of the organizational structures.

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22.6 AN ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE FOR GENDER EQUITY

Through organizational structure it is possible to define relations, communications and distribution of responsibilities, functions and tasks for the different areas in which the organization works. Structuring involves the distribution of personnel by areas, components or units and the respective functions that are assigned within each of these.

The structure of an organization relates to both technical and social divisions of work. Technical division corresponds to the functions and responsibilities of the institution's day-to-day activities. This can be identified by breaking down the services provided by the organization. The social division of labour concerns the power relations established within the organization that affect its technical division and define positions, levels and responsibilities.

22.6.1 Technical Division

By setting up different areas or departments, activities can be distributed in units with certain characteristics. They are identifiable because the activities they carry out are similar or connected; they can be managed because they operate as a unit; and they are specialized, since they have an emphasis and unique experience allowing them to be differentiated from other activities. This division could also be called horizontal differentiation, since it allows a distinction to be made between areas of work at the same hierarchical level.

Organizations can utilize different approaches to create these areas of work. To a large degree, the decision will be affected by the group's capacity to analyze its real situation and the resources it has available. The most common types of divisions are based on some of the following types of categories: functions, areas of action, participants or clients and territories.

The first involves functions, which relate to activities commonly carried out, such as production, marketing, research and training. Another involves areas of action, which is more related to thematic emphases, such as agro-ecology, organization and training.

Another classification is by participants or clients, as they are called in management literature, such as a programme for young people, assistance for women or leadership, etc. Finally, divisions can be made by territory, where we find teams formed according to the geographical area in which they work, i.e., central zone, coasts, etc. The pros and cons of each one of these classifications should be taken into consideration.

These different variables can also be combined in a matrix system. This is a more complex structure and requires a great deal of dedication from the organization's management. Instead of concentrating power in one particular person, this system makes it possible for the different disciplines of the personnel to develop and also encourages a more integrated and creative approach.

The matrix structure tries to integrate functions with areas of action or with other variables, such as territories or participants. Adopting a matrix system can be a powerful tool for promoting gender equity since it empowers staff members and links functions providing a more global and dynamic vision of activities. It facilitates

greater freedom of initiative and creativity in the group, as well as greater leadership in work. It questions the typical division of disciplines, which in most cases reinforces only the more technical areas.

22.6.2 Social Division

We will now discuss more about the role of management, female leadership, formation of leading groups, team work and affirmative action to promote gender equality.

The Role of Management

The issue of hierarchies or levels of management in organizations is not easily addressed. No matter how open people are to participatory processes, any contemplation of hierarchies takes us back to a power relation. Nonetheless, there can be no denying that organizations have a process for distributing work, responsibilities and also benefits.

Management plays an important role in the division of work. This role consists of guiding or orienting actions toward the proposed development objectives and making efficient use of the resources available. It includes the role of management in an organization and its impact on the path to internal and external equity.

In the case of rural development projects, one of the reasons for lack of incorporation of a gender equity perspective is overt opposition or simple lack of interest on the part of management. In most cases these are the people who exercise maximum or sole power.

In effect, many case studies have shown that in all experiences where the organization's management maintained an open and committed attitude to the search for gender equity – in practice as well as speech – processes have been quicker and had a greater impact.

Criteria for distributing work should be transparent and geared toward achieving efficiency. Flow of information between the different levels should be ensured through the use of mechanisms for participation and consultation in decision-making. Timely and accessible information is essential and providing clear and precise manuals allows each person to understand what is expected from his or her work.

Management should not allow personal relations to affect interactions with personnel. Women, in general, may have few opportunities to interact with management levels which are mostly comprised of men, without being questioned or misinterpreted by the rest of the group.

A new management style (in which the exercise of central leadership is based on communication and the development of equitable relations) promotes the creation of new leadership at all levels of the organization and in the local context in which the organization works.

In this model, leadership is conceived as a process of social interaction, rather than the actual behaviour of any particular person. However, a range of abilities and skills is needed to initiate and sustain this interaction within the framework of a series of guiding principles.

The leader or leaders are those persons that influence the process and contribute to creating favourable socio-affective and working conditions for participants, with a view toward the attainment of the proposed goals. This contributes to the construction of collective understanding, which gives meaning to the proposal for change that guides the relations between the participants of the project.

Management, in turn, relates to the capacity of an organization or project to move along smoothly, with order, coherence, a certain degree of predictability and consistency. To make this possible, the exercise of management is supported by the development of transformational leadership at the different levels making up an organization.

Experience has shown that the greatest advances take place in organizations with a gender-sensitive woman as director. There are also cases in which sensitive men with a commitment to gender equity have been able to open spaces in organizations. The position that the management takes on gender equity is critical with respect to reaching goals in this area.

Female Leadership

Female leadership has its own characteristics and advantages. If we recognize that women and men have been socialized in different ways, it is logical to assume that female leadership will have particular characteristics. As a result of their socialization, women have developed abilities of perception and skills in dealing with subjectivity, making it easier for them to identify the needs of others and even to have a better understanding of the more qualitative aspects of personnel and communities, for example. The strengths of women include their negotiating capacity and ability for joint action, which contributes to creating a holistic and comprehensive vision of institutional work.

However, women's reference points for leadership tend to be so-called "masculine" styles within the context of a patriarchal culture. If a woman wants to be director, she has to be like the male directors. It is often necessary to develop skills commonly regarded as "masculine" to be recognized as a leader and director.

In referring to female leadership we are not attempting to create an idealized model, as society has done in the case of motherhood. Nor does this deny the existence of male leaders with a sensitive attitude toward the fight for gender equity. While it is important to make conscious and ongoing efforts to stress the advantages of female leadership, obtaining commitment from management will not be achieved simply by putting a woman in the position. What is important is that person's commitment to the transformation involved in fostering gender equality.

Formation of the Leading Group

The most common approaches used to develop in-house policy on gender equity include:

- placing a woman in charge of gender or the section responsible for gender;
- hiring a gender consultant; and
- mainstreaming responsibility.

In the first case, the person responsible for carrying out a gender policy finds herself isolated and separate from what are considered to be the core activities of the project or organization. In general, her budget is insufficient for impacting all areas of work. In addition, she is not be assigned any staff to help her out. Some of the consequences of this situation can be that the person feels obliged to set an example and the overwork results in personal fatigue and frustration when no favourable results are obtained. Her position may become invisible, with no power and no resources for action. This person is unable to confront the structure of the organization and the way it operates. In many cases the situation of gender inequality experienced by this person makes her more radical than she would be under different conditions, triggering a negative reaction from the group at a conscious or unconscious level.

Not all of these problems can be solved by establishing a Special Gender Unit. But this is one of the steps toward equity and the Unit should be maintained until the entire organization is working toward this objective.

In the second case, experience has shown that hiring external consultants to apply a gender perspective has varying results. In usual practice it has been observed that women specialized in this area are contracted to do this work. They make an investigation, perform an appraisal or write a report of high technical quality. Although the consultant may be contracted for a prolonged period of time, she will always be an outsider. She may come to know a great deal about dynamics at work in the group but does not interact with it on a permanent basis and may even take care not to have much influence. She has the consent of management, which she supports through external evaluations.

The third possibility is to mainstream responsibility among all the people making up the team. The result of such delegation to all members without creating any concrete mechanisms is that the effort falls into general oblivion, with no one taking responsibility.

In practice, it seems that organizations do not yet have the overall capacity for carrying out this type of strategy. It could be successful if the entire organization has clearly defined objectives and responsibilities concerning the implementation of a gender perspective, but also requires mechanisms to monitor and evaluate progress. All areas and all persons in the organization need to be clear about what they must contribute regarding application of the perspective and progress toward gender equity.

One of the proposals being made in this area is to implement several of these strategies at the same time. For example, the person in charge of gender could also participate in decision-making and be given the authority to designate individuals responsible for gender in each of the areas of work. This way there is always someone at a high level promoting the gender agenda. That person is also backed by a team whose members represent the different areas of the institution's work.

The most important factor in this case is the existence of the leading group. The group must be related to the organization's administration in coordination with the functions of management. The internal dynamics of this group can be defined by its members according to the institutional policy adopted. This group must include both women and men with an interest in and commitment to the process. For this reason it is essential to include topics about gender analysis and gender mainstreaming in the consciousness-raising processes for personnel.

Some studies suggest that a gender-sensitive organization should commit at least 30% of its personnel to the application of gender equity measures. Affirmative action in this direction supports and strengthens the formation of this leading group.

Since applying the perspective is a long and difficult process that touches on many aspects of each member's subjectivity, it is necessary to join institutional forces with those of the persons making up that institution. When the institution slows down, some of its members designated to play this role can energize the process.

22.6.3 Teamwork

By teamwork, we are referring to a continuous process of elaboration, confrontation, discussion, conflict resolution and development of joint work processes. A work team is different from other forms of group organization, in that members establish a symmetrical interaction between themselves. This means they are under equal conditions of participation in the group dynamic to contribute dissent, reflect on and analyze the problems being faced. Because of their nature, teams can be multidisciplinary and comprised of persons who know and do different things,

which ensures that they can collectively attain an all-encompassing or comprehensive vision providing the basis for action. It is a different way of organizing for work. The search for group cohesion is not an immediate end in itself; the immediate goal is carrying out the task proposed. Developing group cohesion and promoting socio-affective growth for its members may be long-term goals which, in turn, will help setting and achievement of task-related goals.

Within the work team, efforts are made to integrate each person's needs and demands regarding the collective mission, rather than one that wins out over or at the cost of, the other. When the goal is gender equity and the formulation of new relations between women and men, it is important to find ways of working that make the needs of groups with less power visible.

It is necessary to create an environment that recognizes differences of opinion, promotes mature reflection on confrontational issues and allows these to be expressed and debated as a way of strengthening both the team and each one of the members. Teamwork requires a suitable work environment in which members have confidence in one another, leadership is distributed and there is flexibility, an understanding of the process and continual evaluation. Discussion and conflict should be considered aspects that stimulate team growth. Creating a favourable environment for this growth is not an easy task, nor is it one that can be carried out by a single individual. It is a process in which all participants must contribute.

Forging this type of work unit requires a dedication and energy not always found in every group designated as a team. In the concept of teamwork, the conscientious search for equity is assumed to be one of its goals.

22.6.4 Affirmative Action to Promote Gender Equality

It has been necessary to create compensatory mechanisms as a concrete way of meeting demands for equality. One way of balancing power within the organization is to establish a gender policy that includes affirmative action measures. Affirmative action represents a "strategy for establishing equal opportunity through measures that make it possible to correct or compensate for discrimination resulting from social practices or systems. Their purpose is to implement concrete programmes providing women with concrete advantages".

While affirmative action is often identified with measures focused on increasing the political participation of women, they can be designed to eliminate or reduce discriminatory situations where they exist and can be adapted to the reality of rural development organizations and projects.

Check Your Progress Exercise 3

Note: a) Use this space given below to answer the question.

b) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of the Unit.

1) Discuss female leadership in the context of emerging scenario.

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22.7 SUMMING UP

This Unit focused on leadership, leadership systems, organizations and organizational structures which promote gender equity. It also focused on how the

technical and social divisions of an organization or project influence the application of a gender equity policy. Various approaches or criteria have been used to define organizational structure. Further, it also examines the social divisions and their impact on management's role, female leadership, the important role that can be played by the leading groups within the organization and finally, teamwork and affirmative action.

22.8 GLOSSARY

- Leadership** : A process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal or objective.
- Organization** : A social arrangement including people, money and material to control its own performance to achieve its common goal. It has a boundary separating it from its environment.
- Organizational structure** : System by which every person in the organization is involved in planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting to achieve the common goal of the organization.
- Affirmative action** : A concrete measure whose purpose is to compensate a certain social group for inequalities resulting from discriminatory practices or social systems.
- Gender equity policy** : A set of principles, actions and measures structured in a logical, continuous and systematic way and aimed at establishing more equitable relations between women and men within the organization and in settings impacted by the organization's work. It is, thus, global with implications for the organization as a whole.

22.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS EXERCISES

Check Your Progress Exercise 1

- 1) Leadership is a process; leadership involves influence; leadership occurs in a group context; leadership involves goal attainment; leadership is different from management. Management relies more on planning, organizational and communication skills. Leadership relies on qualities such as integrity, honesty, humility, courage, commitment, sincerity, passion, confidence, positivity, wisdom, determination and compassion.

Thus, leadership is defined as a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal.

- 2) In contrast to the appointed head or chief of an administrative unit, a leader emerges within the context of the informal organization that underlies the formal structure. The informal organization expresses the personal objectives and goals of the individual members. Their objectives and goals may or may not coincide with those of the formal organization. The informal organization represents an extension of the social structures that generally characterize human life – the spontaneous emergence of groups and organizations as ends in themselves.

Leaders emerge from within the structure of the informal organization. Their personal qualities, the demands of the situation or a combination of these and other factors attract followers who accept their leadership within one or several overlay structures. Instead of the authority of the position held by an appointed head or chief, the emergent leader wields influence or power. Influence is the ability of a person to gain cooperation from others by means of persuasion or control over rewards. Power is a stronger form of influence because it reflects a person's ability to enforce action through the control of a means of punishment.

Check Your Progress Exercise 2

- 1) Divisional structure – Also called a “product structure”, the divisional structure groups each organizational function into a division. Each division within a divisional structure contains all the necessary resources and functions within it. Divisions can be categorized from different points of view. One might make distinctions on a geographical basis (a US division and an EU division, for example) or on product/service basis (different products for different customers: households or companies). In another example, an automobile company with a divisional structure might have one division for automobile parts, another division for sub-compact cars and another division for sedans.

Each division may have its own sales, engineering and marketing departments.

Check Your Progress Exercise 3

- 1) Female leadership has its own characteristics and advantages. If we recognize that women and men have been socialized in different ways, it is logical to assume that female leadership will have particular characteristics. As a result of their socialization, women have developed abilities of perception and skills in dealing with subjectivity, making it easier for them to identify the needs of others and even to have a better understanding of the more qualitative aspects of personnel and communities, for example. The strengths of women include their negotiating capacity and ability for joint action, which contributes to creating a holistic and comprehensive vision of institutional work.

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22.11 QUESTIONS FOR REFLECTION AND PRACTICE

- 1) Trace the different types of leadership systems and their significance.

- 2) Why should we analyze leadership studies from a gender perspective?
- 3) How do women's leadership styles differ from men's leadership styles?
- 4) Suggest ways and means to build gender in leadership in different types of organizational structures.
- 5) Critically analyze an organizational structure for gender equity.

UNIT 23 INTER- AND INTRA-SECTORAL COORDINATION

Inter- and Intra-sectoral
Coordination

Structure

- 23.1 Introduction
- 23.2 Objectives
- 23.3 Coordination
 - 23.3.1 Significance of Coordination
 - 23.3.2 Types of Coordination
 - 23.3.3 Techniques of Coordination
 - 23.3.4 Attitudes for Partnership in Coordination
 - 23.3.5 Coordination Mechanisms
- 23.4 Inter- and Intra-sectoral Coordination
 - 23.4.1 Inter- and Intra-sectoral Coordination
 - 23.4.2 Advantages of Inter- and Intra-sectoral Coordination
 - 23.4.3 Process of Inter-Sectoral Coordination
 - 23.4.4 Inter-Sectoral Coordination Capacity Scale
 - 23.4.5 Limits or Hindrances of Coordination
- 23.5 Coordination Tools
- 23.6 Coordination Process
- 23.7 An Integrated Coordination Framework for a National Gender Policy
 - 23.7.1 The Goals, Objectives and Outputs of the Coordination Framework for Gender Policies and Programmes.
 - 23.7.2 Gender Mainstreaming Process
 - 23.7.3 Project Life Cycle as an Organizing Tool
 - 23.7.4 Application of Project Life Cycle to Gender Mainstreaming
 - 23.7.5 Skills Required towards Gender Equality
- 23.8 Summing Up
- 23.9 Glossary
- 23.10 Answer to Check Your Progress Exercises
- 23.11 References
- 23.12 Questions for Reflection and Practice

23.1 INTRODUCTION

Coordination is a core task for effective management in an organization. It helps to identify the gaps to avoid duplication and to ensure participation which raises the standards and upholds rights. Developing and maintaining a network of effective partnerships with the various actors involved in organization and administration can facilitate coordination.

Effective coordination is underpinned by reliable, up-to-date cross-sector information which enables all actors involved to assess the needs of all groups within the organization and plan interventions to meet them. Both inter- and intra-sectoral coordination will help to achieve the goals and objectives of the organization. Coordination can involve information sharing, collaboration or joint programming with partners. This will mean looking for ways in which the diversity of mandates, capacities and programming objectives among partners can achieve complementary interventions.

23.2 OBJECTIVES

After studying this Unit, you should be able to:

- describe the concept of ‘Coordination’ and its significance;
- explain inter- and intra-sectoral coordination;
- analyze the coordination mechanisms, tools and processes; and
- explain the coordination mechanism for promoting gender equality.

23.3 COORDINATION

Coordination is an essential part of administration. Coordination has both positive and negative connotations. Positively, it means bringing about cooperation and team work among the persons and units of an organization. Negatively, it means removing conflicts, inconsistencies, friction, overlapping and working at cross purposes among persons or units of an organization.

The aim of coordination for an organization is to ensure that services and assistance are delivered in a cohesive and effective way by the persons in organization, such that the standard of operation in the organization is maintained and full and equal access to basic human rights is ensured for the target groups of the organization. In order to achieve this aim, the following activities are undertaken by the administration and management of organizations:

- Strategic planning;
- Gathering data and managing information;
- Mobilizing resources and ensuring accountability;
- Facilitating a clear and agreed division of tasks;
- Developing and maintaining a network of partnerships with key stakeholders inside and outside the organization; and
- Providing leadership.

While many recognize the importance of coordination in an organization, effective coordination can be challenging to achieve on the ground. This is especially true in situations of conflict and disaster, where there is, by definition, chaos and confusion and where a competitive agenda between stakeholders may undermine cooperation. An effective coordinator believes in the principle that more is achieved when people work together and that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. A coordinator works in ways that promote and develop positive and effective relationships between stakeholders.

23.3.1 Significance of Coordination

Coordination is essential for smooth and successful functioning of an organization due to the following reasons:

- Avoiding conflicts and duplication of work in the functioning of an organization and thus ensuring economy of expenditure;
- Curtailing the tendency among employees to attach too much significance to their own work and de-emphasizing others’ work;
- Preventing the tendency of ‘empire-building’, that is, expansion of one’s own activities to gain more power;

- Checking the narrow perspective of specialists who engage in different and specific aspects of work; and
- Meeting the requirements of a growing number of organizational units.

23.3.2 Types of Coordination

There are three ways to classify types of coordination:

- internal and external;
- horizontal and perpendicular; and
- procedural and substantive.

Internal and External

Internal coordination deals with coordination of the individual activities of persons working in an organization. It is also known as functional coordination. External coordination deals with coordinating the activities of various organizational units. It is also known as structural coordination.

Horizontal and perpendicular

Horizontal coordination deals with the coordination between one section and another, one branch and another, one division and another or one department and another. Perpendicular coordination deals with the coordination between an officer and her or his employee or subordinate, a branch and a division and a division and a department.

Procedural and substantive

Procedural coordination is exemplified by the structure of the organization itself that defines the pattern of formal relations among its members. Substantive coordination, on the other hand, is concerned with the content of the activities of the organization, their interrelationships and how they are managed.

23.3.3 Techniques of Coordination

Coordination consists of a process of gathering and sharing information and planning together in pursuit of shared and agreed goals. The success of this process is underpinned by and involves developing and maintaining transparent and effective partnerships with a diversity of stakeholders, including the Cluster/Sector Lead, on-site authorities, service providers, the organization population and the host community.

The following are the techniques or means of coordination:

- 1) Planning (the most important means of coordination);
- 2) Institutional devices or organizational devices like inter-departmental meetings, conferences, committees, staff units, coordinating officers and so on;
- 3) Standardization of procedures and methods like forms, manuals, regulations;
- 4) Centralized house-keeping agencies like Director-General of Supplies, Central Public Works Department and so on;
- 5) Verbal and written communications;
- 6) Inculcation of institutional spirit among the employees;
- 7) Consultations, references and clearance like with finance ministry;

- 8) Organizational hierarchy or scalar chain which, according to Mooney, constitutes the universal process of coordination; and
- 9) In addition to the above formal means, there are various informal means of coordination like personal contacts, dinners, cocktail parties, party system and others.

23.3.4 Attitudes for Partnership in Coordination

Some of the preconditions for successful partnerships and, hence, for successful coordination include:

- A commitment to coordinate;
- An inclusive and proactive attitude;
- Active listening skills;
- An appreciation of diversity and interpersonal skills and styles;
- A commitment to process as well as product;
- The ability to trust;
- A willingness and ability to establish consensus;
- Leadership capacity and the acceptance of leadership; and
- Cultural sensitivity.

These attributes may often be either assumed or dismissed. However, without them, coordination cannot be fully effective.

23.3.5 Coordination Mechanisms

The term ‘coordination mechanisms’ simply means the methods we employ to coordinate, a vehicle for sharing information or a platform for joint planning. Coordination mechanisms are the way in which coordination results are achieved. In any organizational response a variety of coordination mechanisms should be used to coordinate with different stakeholders.

The method most commonly used – and arguably also misused – is the meeting. A meeting may be used to achieve a variety of results. It may simply be used as a forum to share information. It may also be used to take decisions. Some coordination mechanisms commonly in use include:

- Meetings (including distributed agendas and minutes);
- Teleconferences (involving more stakeholders);
- Cluster/sector group (facilitated by the organization);
- Different-level of representative groups (a diversity of key stakeholders);
- Organization committees (within and outside of the organization);
- Informal chats and exchanges (planned and/or adhoc relationship building);
- Task forces (often used to target a specific issue needing urgent, technical/ expert attention and providing feedback and recommendations); and
- Working groups (a sub-group tasked with researching a specific issue or producing a specific deliverable and providing timely feedback).

Check Your Progress Exercise 1

Note: a) Use this space given below to answer the question.

b) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of the Unit.

1) What are the types of coordination?

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23.4 INTER- AND INTRA-SECTORAL COORDINATION

Inter-sectoral coordination can be defined as a process or a status, i.e. the end-state of a process. Inter-Sectoral coordination can be considered as a composite process of implementation and reconciliation of different sub-processes and activities, which take place simultaneously or consecutively in an organization. In policy terms, it means reconciling the policies and programmes of different sectors. However, this does not imply that successful coordination within sectors can be taken for granted. Referring to coordination as a status, sectors coordinate when their respective policies and programmes show minimum redundancy (two initiatives doing the same without considering each other); minimum incoherence (different goals and requirements); and a minimum of untackled issues (“policy gaps”). States of inter-sectoral coordination can be assigned to a continuum. Sectors, i.e. their policies and programmes, are more or less coordinated. An organization will have inter-sectoral coordination with another organization, non-organizations, sectors or agencies in order to achieve goals or objectives.

23.4.1 Intra-sectoral Coordination

Intra-sectoral coordination is a composite process of implementation and reconciliation of different sub-processes and activities, which take place simultaneously or consecutively within an organization between its various sub-systems and units or agents. The definition of “sectors” can be based on the policy dimension (policies and programmes affecting certain subject areas) or on the polity dimension (actors, networks, bureaucratic structures, etc.). Defining sectors from a *policy perspective* means delimiting subject areas that are primarily affected by a certain group of programmes and policies (environmental policy, research policy, social policy, etc.). The assignment of policies may often be unclear, equivocal and more or less arbitrary. Accordingly, delimiting sectors from a policy perspective can be quite unreliable and has consequently low analytical value. Regarding the *polity dimension*, programmes do not coordinate themselves. It takes actors to coordinate their activities and programmes. Accordingly, the alternative approach is to define sectors as more or less autonomous decision-making structures. Such structures, usually referred to as “policy networks”, “domain networks”, “policy sub-systems” etc., may comprise governmental as well as private actors, corporate actors (e.g. interest groups) as well as individuals (e.g. journalists, scientists). They have an identity, show a certain degree of stability and are to a certain degree autonomous within the overall policy-making system. Such a policy sub-system (e.g. a “forest policy sub-system”) may comprise all kinds of actors who interact regularly over a longer period of time in order to affect the formulation and/or implementation of policies and programmes in subject areas of common interest. Sectors are more than one-shot issue-networks.

23.4.2 Advantages of Inter- and Intra-sectoral Coordination

Coordination becomes relevant whenever *the decisions of two or more units (actors, policy networks etc.) are interdependent*. Interdependence may exist either because individually set goals can only be achieved in a common action or because individual activities significantly affect the interests of others. From the viewpoint of individual actors, a general judgment about the advantage of coordination cannot be given. The overall benefit has to be taken into account. From that perspective, coordination is desirable if concerted action can increase the welfare-gains otherwise achievable by the individual decision-making of independent actors.

The benefits expected from inter- and intra-sectoral coordination are to:

- Achieve goals which cannot be achieved alone;
- Increase the chance that those policy alternatives are chosen which are most likely to result in the highest overall welfare gains;
- Help to prevent overall welfare losses because of policies that entail positive welfare effects for individual actors, but disadvantages from an overall point of view; and
- Provide *legitimacy* and *acceptance* to public policy.

To sum up, inter- and intra-sectoral coordination is likely to lead to more effective public policies due to enhanced governance knowledge, mutual learning and reduced risk of deadlock in decision making, avoidance of unintended side-effects and the prevention of implementation resistance. Furthermore, inter- and intra-sectoral coordination may gain from transparent and participatory procedures in terms of more obvious legitimacy.

23.4.3 Process of Inter-Sectoral Coordination

From a process perspective the following aspects characterize inter-sectoral coordination:

- the number of *integrated sectors* (one = intra-sectoral, some/all sectors affected);
- the *time-frame* of coordination (short-term, medium-term, long-term);
- the *reiterativeness* (one-shot event, open-ended iterative);
- the *stage(s) of the policy cycle concerned* (formulation, implementation, evaluation or the whole cycle);
- the *applied mode regarding the complexity* of overall interaction patterns (hierarchical direction without considering other sectors, negative coordination, only some interaction in the form of positive coordination, but most as negative coordination, most interactions as positive coordination and some as negative, positive coordination among all involved);
- the *mode applied with regard to the exercise of power* to constrain coordinated sectors (top-down imposition, negotiation on an equal basis, bottom-up approach to influence decisions of coordinated sectors); and
- the *degree of institutionalization* (e.g., non-legally/legally; informal/formal, amount of resources devoted to a coordinating institution).

23.4.4 Inter-Sectoral Coordination Capacity Scale

Metcalf (1994 and 1997) developed a “*policy coordination scale*” and subsequently a “*coordination capacity scale*”. The first version enumerated options for national coordination available to governments involved in intergovernmental negotiations. It was meant to serve as a scale for comparing the status of coordination in different

countries, but strictly speaking it does not refer to the status, but to procedures of coordination. Furthermore, the original applies only to governmental actors.

A similar scale was developed by Metcalfe 1997 in a comparative study of European policy coordination in national administrations. The logic is that *capacities for coordination must be built in a bottom-up process step by step* (see Box 23.1). Instead of applying a hierarchical approach based on prescription and control, it assumes rather decentralized actor networks.

There are eight steps in the inter-sectoral coordination capacity scale. Steps 1 to 8 represent levels of increasing capacities for inter-sectoral coordination. All parties share responsibility for coordination. The role left to the central coordinator differs from step to step. Much coordination takes place without a coordinator.

Box 23.1: Steps in Capacity Building for Coordination

The eight steps in capacity building are illustrated in hierarchy perspective.

Step 8: Establishing an overall inter-sectoral strategy. This step is added for the sake of completeness, but is unlikely to be attainable in practice.



Step 7: Establishing commonly agreed or binding priorities. Inter-sectoral agreement to common priorities and/or centre of government lays down the main lines of policy and establishes cross-sectoral priorities.



Step 6: Defining common limits by setting parameters for sectoral activities. A central organization of an inter-sectoral decision-making body may play a more active role by constraining the admissible range of sectoral activity. The parameters define what sectoral actors must not do, rather than prescribing what they should do.



Step 5: Arbitration of inter-sectoral differences. Where inter-sectoral differences cannot be resolved by the horizontal coordination processes defined in steps 2 to 4, a central mechanism of an ex ante commonly agreed procedure for arbitration is applied (e.g. state hierarchy, voting)



Step 4: Avoiding policy divergences among sectors and seeking consensus. Beyond negative coordination to find out differences and prevent mutual negative effects, actors/organizations work together, e.g. in joint committees and project teams, because they recognize their interdependence and their mutual interest in resolving policy differences.



Step 3: Consultation with others. A two-way process. Sectors/actors inform others about what they are doing; they consult others in the process of formulating their own policies or positions.



Step 2: Information exchange among sectors. Sectors/actors keep each other up-to-date about emerging issues and how they propose to act in their own areas. Reliable and accepted channels of regular communication must exist.



Step 1: Sectors/actors manage independently within their domain/ jurisdiction. Each sector retains autonomy within its own policy domain.

Source: Based on Metcalfe 1994 and 1997, OECD 1996.

Many problems can be solved at lower levels without the necessity to apply more demanding higher levels of coordination. On the other hand, the effectiveness of higher levels of coordination depends on the reliability of lower level capacities. Accordingly, this logic suggests that a stable and reliable system of coordination depends on building the necessary capacities in the sequence depicted in the above Box 23.1, i.e. from step 1 upwards. For example: Failures of coordination may be due to ambiguity or disagreement regarding jurisdictions (step 1), information deficits (step 2) or a lack of consultation (step 3). These coordination failures can be evaded by adequate information and sufficient consultation, but both steps are indispensable to a successful search for policy consensus in the case of serious conflicts (step 4).

In contrast to this, conventional management often starts from the assumption that the first and most urgent task is to define overall priorities and broad strategies (step 7 and 8). This implicitly takes the reliability of all the other levels of coordination capacity for granted. Consequently, *“mission statements, political programmes and other expressions of broad priorities are liable to be empty rhetoric without the infrastructure of coordination”*.

23.4.5 Limits or Hindrances of Coordination

The following factors limit the achievement of coordination:

- Uncertainty of the future behaviour of individuals and of groups;
- Lack of knowledge, experience, wisdom and character among leaders and their confused and conflicting ideas and objectives;
- Lack of administrative skills and techniques;
- The vast number of variables involved and the incompleteness of human knowledge, particularly related to people and life;
- Lack of proper methods for developing, considering, perfecting and adopting new ideas and programmes;
- Enormous growth in size and complexity of public administration;
- Personalities and political factors;
- Lack of leaders with wisdom and knowledge pertaining to public administration; and
- Accelerated expansion of public administration to international dimensions.

Check Your Progress Exercise 1

Note: a) Use this space given below to answer the question.
b) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of the Unit.

- 1) What are the limits and hindrances of coordination?

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23.5 COORDINATION TOOLS

Coordination tools fulfill a specific information function and are developed for a particular context. Whether a tool is used for intra- or inter-sectoral coordination purposes, specific tools need to be agreed upon and developed by the relevant stakeholders. One of the key challenges in setting up effective coordination is for parties to develop and use shared coordination tools, which meet common needs for information. This may sound easy but it requires that stakeholders are able to trust information collected by other parties and that all parties are committed to meeting the information needs of other stakeholders and see them reflected in shared tools. In situations where this does not happen there will often be gaps and duplication in data collection and information management.

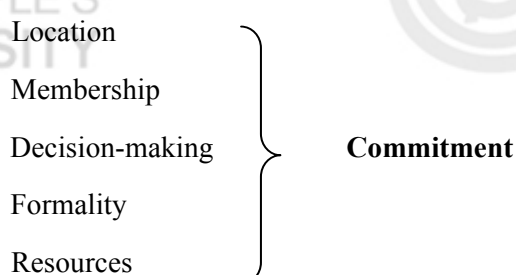
No matter what mechanisms and tools are in place, facilitating effective coordination requires a Management Agency to take an active, inclusive and flexible approach to developing solutions which aim to meet a wide diversity of needs. In establishing coordination mechanisms and tools, a Management Agency should:

- Be familiar with the organization or agency, including the people and the place. Get out of the office and away from emails! Talk to people and listen to their needs;
- Involve people in discussions on the need to coordinate, enthuse them about its effectiveness and how to overcome challenges to effective coordination;
- map the actors involved in coordination at the organizational level and include coordination with both international and national actors;
- get clarity on information needs and advocate for sharing information and data collection systems and tools wherever possible;
- brainstorm appropriate coordination forums and information sharing mechanisms for different stakeholders;
- use the 'five factors coordination analysis' tool to evaluate existing coordination mechanisms and to improve them;
- list coordination mechanisms in the organization such as meeting schedules and make them visible in a publicly accessible place;
- use a variety of mechanisms that make information accessible to all, including those who are not literate;
- advocate for shared coordination tools and train people how to use them;
- establish committees to ensure that the organization personnel are central to the coordination process;
- ensure plans and coordination aims are clear, simple, agreed and known about;
- hold regular and effective meetings and ensure minute-taking is good and minutes list action points and deadlines for follow up;
- keep everyone informed, at every stage and monitor plans and progress;
- be prepared to adapt plans, procedures and processes if things are not working or situations change;
- encourage a culture of respect, trust and inclusiveness, which goes beyond specific agency agendas and prioritizes shared goals and upholds the rights of the displaced; and
- engage organizational personnel and community persons in voluntary or paid work, where appropriate, to build trust and professional relationships.

It is easy to criticize poor coordination and there is no shortage of anecdotal evidence to explain what happens when coordination mechanisms fail to work. What is more challenging perhaps is to go beyond critiques and find practical solutions – processes to follow and tools to use to make coordination more effective. Finding workable solutions can be testing, especially in situations of crisis, which are by definition complicated by chaos and contradiction.

This five-factor analysis tool gives a starting point for thinking about why a specific coordination approach is not working and opens up possibilities for planned improvement. It allows the analysis of coordination according to five criteria – location, membership, decision-making, formality and resources. It is important to be aware that underpinning effective coordination is the commitment by those involved in the process of coordination itself and a belief in its benefits.

Five coordination factors



Let us study some hypothetical examples of coordination mechanisms, showing the potential use of this simple tool:

Example 1: A regular meeting of a particular group, while being well-located and having inclusive and consistent membership, may have members present with insufficient decision-making power to allow commitments to be made or action points to be defined.

Example 2: An emailing address list which is intended to function as the central commitment mechanism for the dissemination of organization-level information does not have an accurate or well-updated membership list. An unreliable internet connection means that it is not always accessible and too many agencies do not refer to it or know it exists.

A simple analysis of the mechanisms we use for coordination can tell us a great deal about why they work or why they fail to live up to expectations. Sometimes the simplest changes can make the biggest difference.

Factors and actions which influence the effectiveness of a coordination mechanism include:

- the location of an information board in the organization;
- the time of a meeting;
- the language or quality of translation of a report;
- the provision of resources like pens and paper to a committee;
- the drafting of a job description for a committee secretary who needs to take minutes;
- the prompt delivery of invitations with reminders issued;
- transport to a meeting;
- the training of inter-agency staff on using a joint monitoring tool;
- the distribution of a database to smaller local NGOs;

- the maintenance of meeting agendas and minutes which are simple and clear;
- the consistent follow-up of specific and manageable action points;
- the collaboration of agencies in the use of a joint data collection form; and
- support offered to the government who hosts a meeting, but has no capacity to process and distribute the minutes.

Coordination mechanisms and tools need to be planned, chosen and adapted in direct relation to what they are meant to achieve. When dealing with complex and often conflicting agendas, it is especially important to keep the end in mind: What needs to be achieved and what will make the difference in achieving it?

23.6 COORDINATION PROCESS

The following suggestions can help in setting up good coordination systems when an Organization Management Agency takes over:

- Collecting data involves ensuring that regular reliable data and information about the organization is available and decisions are made about who collects data, why, about what, when and how. Everybody should be clear about the reason why data is collected and what response capacity is in place, so that the expectations of the organization or community populations can be effectively managed.
- Managing information requires the Organization Management Agency to coordinate with the Organization Coordination Agency or Sector Lead, the authorities and other relevant stakeholders to establish who is responsible for the processing and analysis of what data, how it will be disseminated, how often and to whom. How will confidential and sensitive information be managed and how will groups with specific needs and those at risk be protected? What feedback and follow-up mechanisms are in place for the organization community, so that they are kept informed of developments?
- It is important to decide what information about life in the organization will be shared, with whom and using which mechanisms. Delays in dealing with the many and often incompatible expectations and demands from different parties should be avoided. An Organization Management Agency's role means negotiating and reaching agreements.
- Dealing with complex messages is crucially important. Transparent and frank communication is needed to ensure complex information is understood and to avoid sending contradictory messages. The messages communicated by the Management Agency will have an impact, intended or not, on people's understandings and their behaviours. Access to information is a vital need and knowledge is power. In times of conflict, crisis and chaos, information needs to be handled carefully, with the Do No Harm principle underpinning the chosen approach.
- Keeping a clear focus is essential. Amidst competing agendas, retaining focus on the roles and responsibilities of the Management Agency and the aims of Management is essential.
- Clarifying agreements is important. Time needs to be taken to ensure that there is a common understanding of the agreements that are reached. It is useful to remind each other of the process that led to the agreement and on the specific outcomes, responsibilities and time frames involved. Documentation such as minutes of meetings, MoUs, plans, indicators, guidelines and reports should be written and disseminated in such a way that agreements are clear, specific, manageable and useful for everyone.

- Making progress requires taking decisions and advocating agreements that allow things to move forward, even if the steps are small. Flexibility and open reflection are required, to accommodate the needs of others or changes in the circumstances. Progress that is inclusive and sustainable takes time, patience and creativity. Solutions and compromises are needed when processes get stuck.
- It is important to always see the bigger picture. When submerged in microlevel problem-solving and technical issues, the Management Agency needs to maintain a holistic overview and an understanding of the big picture and how issues are connected and interdependent.
- Managing expertise matters. Being comfortable in the role of ‘jack of all trades but a master of none’ the Management Agency usually develops a team that has enough sector-specific knowledge to understand the work of those agencies that are working in the organization and ideally can be seen as a forum for the sharing of cross-sector expertise. Local and international expertise needs to be harnessed for the benefit of all.
- Respecting diversity is essential. A Management Agency’s staff should always practise and advocate for respect and understanding of all groups and stakeholders involved.
- Monitoring, adapting and evaluating require change and process to be monitored, achievements in coordination evaluated and reflected upon and challenges identified. It is important to adopt new approaches and anticipate future needs.

In effective coordination the process is as important as the outcomes.

The coordination process can be understood as a cycle of coordination, set out in Figure 23.1. The cycle illustrates how the organization is used to identify gaps, plan interventions and evaluate impact. The questions on each arrow in the diagram lead from one action to the next, through a cycle of data collection, processing and analysis, through information sharing and joint planning, to project implementation, monitoring and evaluation. This diagram can be used to inform the Organization’s approach to coordinating activities.

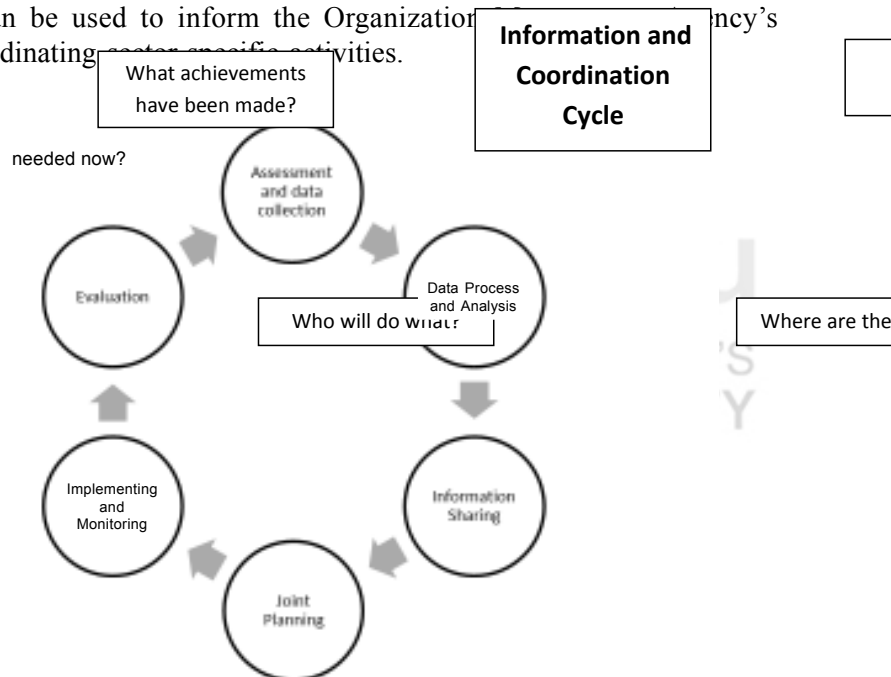


Fig. 23.1: The Information and Coordination Cycle in an Organization

Source: *Gender mainstreaming in Development Planning: A Reference Manual for Governments and Other Stakeholders.*

23.7 AN INTEGRATED COORDINATION FRAMEWORK FOR A NATIONAL GENDER POLICY

The Integrated Coordination Framework is a communication, service delivery and accountability framework. More importantly, it is a tool necessary for developing and maintaining a Management Information System (MIS) which could be the very engine of a National Gender Programme to promote gender equity and equality.

23.7.1 Goals, Objectives and Outputs of the Coordination Framework for Gender Policies and Programmes

The main objective of the Coordination Framework is to assign clear roles and responsibilities within a participatory framework that is built upon collaboration and requires synergy for effective delivery. This Coordination Framework meets these criteria. An effective coordination framework is one that results in effective gender mainstreaming with clear lines of communication and accountability, an identifiable centre for filtering information and a cohesive National Action Plan. Table 23.1 reflects the goals, objectives and outputs of the Coordination Framework.

Table 23.1: Goals, Objectives and Outputs of the Coordination Framework

Goals of the Coordination Framework	Objectives of the Coordination Framework	Outputs of a Coordination Framework
• Broaden sectoral participation in the National Gender Programme by engaging all stakeholders • Ensure that the focus is on delivery by line ministries and • Affirm that the structures of the National Machinery remain as facilitators of the National Gender Programme and that implementation is the responsibility of all	• Set goals and objectives for the National Gender Programme • Effect gender mainstreaming • Establish clear lines of communication and accountability • Assign roles and responsibilities • Develop a dynamic Management Information System that facilitates informed implementation • Facilitate and provide for the formulation of Gender-specific Action Plans at National, State and Local Government levels and • Engage Civil Society	• Effective gender mainstreaming strategy • Clear lines of communication and accountability among stakeholders • Clarity of stakeholder roles and responsibilities resulting in clear division of labour • Clear boundaries and respect for boundaries while enhancing collaboration • Functional Management Information System • Presence of National, Sectoral, State and Local Plans of Action and • Collaborative definitions of Inputs, Process, Outputs and Impacts

23.7.2 Gender Mainstreaming Process

What are the major features of the gender mainstreaming process?

- The implementation of gender equality is first and foremost the responsibility of all the institutions of government. To achieve gender equality, government must embark on a rigorous gender mainstreaming strategy. To this end, much of the responsibility for planning and implementing effective and innovative strategies for the promotion of women's empowerment and gender equality will rest equally with key structures of the National Machinery and with individual government departments at the national, state and local levels.
- While individual departments will obviously need to tailor their strategies for gender equality to suit the particular needs and requirements of their departments and client base, there are nevertheless a number of generic strategic guidelines which might usefully inform the processes of overall gender mainstreaming and overall planning and implementation.
- Broadly speaking, there are three main areas of intervention that government departments can make in the area of gender mainstreaming. These relate to external and internal gender transformation.
 - Promoting women's empowerment and gender equality in their service provision. This amounts to external transformation.
 - Raising public awareness about gender in their dealings with clients and stakeholders in the private and community sectors. This combines internal and external transformation.
 - Promoting women's empowerment and gender equality in their internal employment policies and practices.

23.7.3 Project Life Cycle as an Organizing Tool

To be effective, the framework for integrating gender considerations must be implemented in a coordination framework where there is synergy and clarity of roles. The principles of gender mainstreaming must be applied throughout the project life cycle reflected in Figure 24.2.

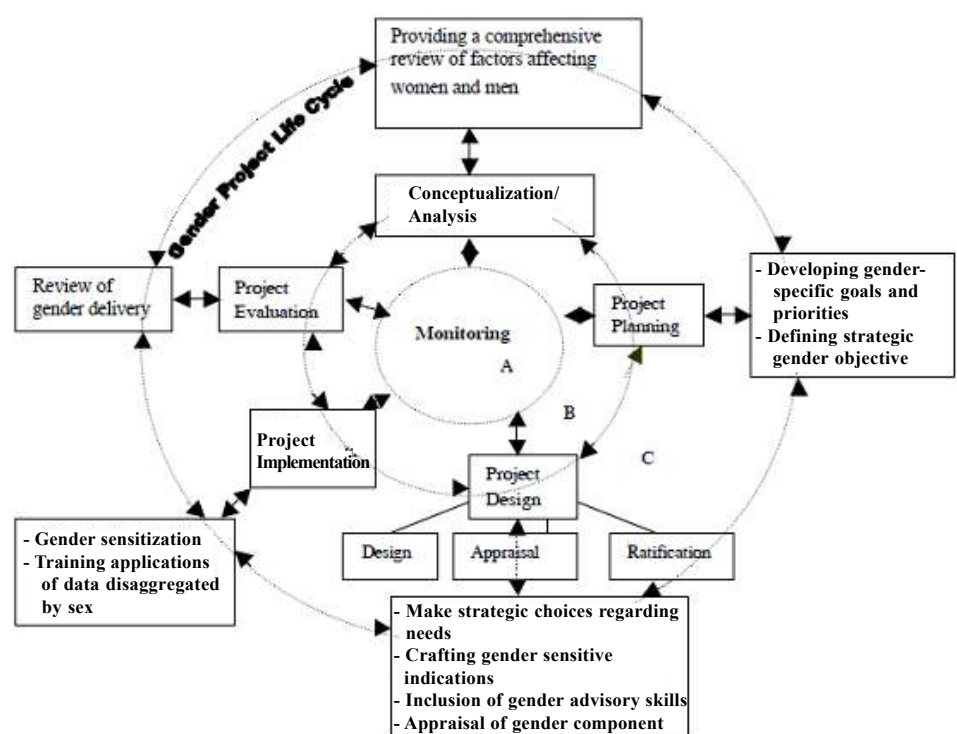


Fig. 23.2: Project Life Cycle for the Implementation of a National Gender Programme

Source: The Coordinating Committee on the National Action Plan, 1998.

23.7.4 Application of Project Life Cycle to Gender Mainstreaming

The project life cycle as a tool also serves as an organizing instrument for gender planning. For each phase there are complementary gender-specific activities which must be accomplished. This makes it easier for the departments to audit the activity of each of the tasks they execute, be it related to internal or external transformation. Table 23.2 reflects the incorporation of gender considerations in a typical project life cycle. In order to accommodate gender considerations, the project design phase is broken down into three phases marked as: design, appraisal and ratification. These are critical for projects in government as they accommodate administrative and political will that must endorse all projects.

Table 23.2: Key Activities and Outputs from Application of Project Life Cycle to Gender Mainstreaming

Project Life Cycle	Phases in Gender Planning	Activities	Outputs
Conceptualization	- Situational analysis - Review of current policies, programmes and budgets - Problem Identification	- Conduct a situational analysis of the community's political, economic, social and cultural environments - Assess inclusion of gender considerations into budgets, policies, programmes and practices - System-wide consultations;	- Understanding of the material conditions in which women and men live - Comprehension of factors contributing to women's subordination as well as their lack of access to resources and services - List of particular women's needs that need to be addressed - Common understanding regarding gender gaps, constraints and challenges - Identification of policy directions - Targeting of mainstreaming initiatives
Project Planning	- Develop gender-specific goals and priorities - Define strategic options	- Strategic planning - Consultations with Human Resources and Finance Divisions	Integration between women's needs and larger sector-specific transformation objectives

		• Definition of target groups • Identification of gender objectives and • Gender needs assessment	• Women's views reflected in plans • Views reflecting diversity of women by race, class, age, religion and region • Methods for addressing gender gaps • Plans for gender budgets for departments • Gender resource plan • Clear gender goals • Integrated plans
Project Design	Make strategic choices	• Undertake strategic planning • Conduct internal consultations • Gender terms of reference • Integration of mechanisms that will ensure integration of women • Design of data collection	• Strategic objectives for addressing needs • Gender targets in all units of operation • Gender targets for programme delivery • Clear by staff understanding of gender interventions by staff • Strategies that have specific gender focus • Disaggregated data
	Appraisal	• Gender training of staff in the project • Inclusion of gender advisory skills • Gendered terms of reference for all	• Curriculum • Gender Specialists • Job descriptions
	Ratification	• Review of projects	• Approval of gendered projects

		Appraisal of gender component	- Multi-disciplinary review of engendered projects - Requests for integration of gender - Clarification of women's roles in participatory projects
Project Implementation	Prepare the Departments for Action	Undertake an educational programme	- Gender sensitization programme - Policies for institutionalizing gender equality - Development and enhancement of Management Information System - Clear tracking system - Training of gender staff and all other staff in gender analysis - Code of Conduct
Project Evaluation	Undertake regular evaluation	- Conduct consultations - Review written reports - Conduct focus group discussion - Conduct individual interviews	- Project Appraisal Report - Reports on accomplishments, gaps, challenges and constraints - The way forward detailing strategies for addressing gender gaps, constraints and challenges that emerged during the cycle

23.7.5 Skills Required towards Gender Equality

An effective coordination framework, gender mainstreaming process and Gender Management System is reliant on skilled personnel. The matrix in Table 23.3 summarizes the key skills required by the national programme to advance the country towards the national goal of a non-sexist society. That means a society free of gender discrimination and characterized by equality between women and men. The identified skills are related to the key programme areas of policy, gender

Management and Administration mainstreaming, advocacy, coordination and planning, liaison networking and capacity building.

Table 23.3: Skills Required and Outputs towards achieving the National Goal of Gender Equality

Programme Areas	Skills Required	Outputs
Policy	— Gender based analysis; — Policy formulation; — Programme design; — Programme planning.	— Gender sensitive programme; — Clear sectoral policies; — Plans of action.
Gender Mainstreaming	— Statistical analysis; — Gender-based analysis; — Training skills; — Research skills; — Planning	— Disaggregated data; — Integration of gender into day-to-day activities of departments; — Clear gender planning programmes
Coordination and Planning	— Strategic planning; — Communication skills; — Quantitative and qualitative evaluation skills; — Coordination.	— Management information system; — Consensus about the role of the gender programme.
Advocacy	— Social and economic skills; — Research/analytical skills; — Planning; — Training; — Monitoring and evaluation.	— Common understanding of gender and its role in transformation.
Liaison Networking	— Communication; — Grasp of stakeholders' interests; — Organizational skills; — Report writing.	— Clear communication with NGOs and international agencies.
Capacity Building	— Management skills; — Training; — Facilitation skills; — Analytical skills; — Insight into social situation.	— Training modules; — Best practices; — Skilled cadre of gender people; — General awareness of all government officials about the goals, objectives and strategies of the gender programme.

This Gender Policy Framework on women's empowerment and gender equality is attempted to set out a clear vision and framework to guide the processes of developing laws, policies, procedures and practices which will serve to ensure equal rights and opportunities for women and men in all spheres and structures of government as well as in the workplace, the community and the family.

Much work will still need to be done, however, in translating the Policy Framework towards gender equality into specific, achievable and effective strategies for implementation. The move from policy formulation and commitment to effective implementation represents in many ways the most important challenge facing the movement for women's empowerment and gender equality.

In meeting this challenge a sustained and concerted effort will be required by national, provincial and local spheres of government, trade unions, business, NGOs and community organizations. Various elements will be involved in this process but three will be of particular importance:

- Support and leadership from higher organizational levels;
- Effective coordination, networking and monitoring; and
- Changing attitudes, values and behaviour.

Check Your Progress Exercise 3

Note: a) Use this space given below to answer the question.

b) Compare your answers with the one given at the end of the Unit.

1) Define coordination tools.

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23.8 SUMMING UP

This Unit focused on Inter- and Intra-sectoral coordination, the need for coordination, coordination mechanisms and their processes and structure needed to promote gender equity. Successful partnerships (and hence successful coordination), is, in part, dependent upon attitudes, skills and competencies including active listening, good leadership, clear and transparent communication and an ability to establish consensus.

23.9 GLOSSARY

Coordination	: The integration, synchronization or orderly patterning of group efforts by an organization towards the accomplishment of common goals or objectives.
Cooperation	: Collective effort put willingly and voluntarily by a group in the performance of any work. There is no time, quality or directional framework.
Inter-sectoral Coordination	: Coordination with all relevant organizations, sectors or agencies to achieve goals.

Management and Administration	Intra-sectoral Coordination :	Coordination within an organization between its various sub-systems and units or agents.
Gender Equity	:	Refers to the fair and just distribution of all means, opportunities and resources between women and men.
Policy	:	Refers to guiding principles to a course of action arrived at by decision-makers to address a particular issue or issues.
Programme	:	Refers to a systematic action-oriented design of a plan of action towards achieving a particular goal.
Project	:	Refers to the design of an implementation strategy or a plan of action geared towards achieving a particular goal.
Gender Equality	:	Equality between women and men, referring to the equal enjoyment by women, girls, boys and men of rights, opportunities, resources and rewards. Equality does not mean that women and men are the same but that their enjoyment of rights, opportunities and life chances are not governed or limited by whether they were born female or male.
Gender Mainstreaming	:	It is a globally recognized strategy for achieving gender equality. The Economic and Social Council of the United Nations defined gender mainstreaming as the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated.

23.10 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS EXERCISES

Check Your Progress Exercise 1

- 1) Internal and external; Horizontal and perpendicular, Procedural and substantive

Check Your Progress Exercise 2

- 1) The following factors limit the achievement of coordination:
 - Uncertainty of the future behaviour of individuals and of groups;
 - Lack of knowledge, experience, wisdom and character among leaders and their confused and conflicting ideas and objectives;
 - Lack of administrative skills and techniques;

- The vast number of variables involved and the incompleteness of human knowledge, particularly related to people and life;
- Lack of proper methods for developing, considering, perfecting and adopting new ideas and programmes;
- Enormous growth in size and complexity of public administration;
- Personalities and political factors;
- Lack of leaders with wisdom and knowledge pertaining to public administration; and
- Accelerated expansion of public administration to international dimensions.

Check Your Progress Exercise 3

- 1) Coordination tools fulfill a specific information function and are developed for a particular context. Whether a tool is used for intra- or inter-sectoral coordination purposes, specific tools need to be agreed upon and developed by the relevant stakeholders. One of the key challenges in setting up effective coordination is for parties to develop and use shared coordination tools, which meet common needs for information.

23.11 REFERENCES

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23.12 QUESTIONS FOR REFLECTION AND PRACTICE

- 1) Discuss significance of coordination and describe its techniques and mechanisms.
- 2) Write a short note on inter- and intra-sectoral coordination.
- 3) Critically analyze the role of coordination in achieving the goal or objective of an organization.
- 4) Explain the coordination process.

- 5) Suggest ways and means to build an integrated approach for building a national gender policy.
- 6) Explain the Project Life Cycle of Gender Mainstreaming for formulating and implementing national gender policy.
- 7) What are the skills required towards achieving gender equality?

UNIT 24 PARTICIPATORY PROCESSES IN PLANNING, IMPLEMENTATION AND MONITORING

**Participatory Processes in
Planning, Implementation and
Monitoring**

Structure

- 24.1 Introduction
- 24.2 Objectives
- 24.3 Origin and Growth of Participatory Approaches
- 24.4 Participatory Learning and Action (PLA)
- 24.5 Stages and Process of PLA
- 24.6 Principles of PLA in Planning, Implementing and Monitoring
- 24.7 Participatory Approach for Community Mobilization in Planning, Implementing and Monitoring
- 24.8 Methods and Approaches of PRA and PLA
- 24.9 Advantages of a Participatory Approach
- 24.10 Challenges of a Participatory Approach
- 24.11 Applications of Participatory Approaches in Planning, Implementation and Monitoring Programmes and Policies
 - 24.11.1 Participatory Budgeting
 - 24.11.2 Public Participation
 - 24.11.3 Public Policy
 - 24.11.4 Public Trust
 - 24.11.5 Accountability and Transparency
 - 24.11.6 Participatory Development
 - 24.11.7 Environmental and Sustainable Development
 - 24.11.8 Right to Public Participation
 - 24.11.9 People's Participation
- 24.12 Lessons Learned from Implementing Participatory Approaches in Planning
- 24.13 Lessons Learned from Evaluating the Participatory Approach
- 24.14 Monitoring and Evaluation
- 24.15 Implementing a Strategic Plan
- 24.16 Participatory Approach in Gender Planning, Implementation and Monitoring
- 24.17 Mainstreaming Gender in Planning, Implementing and Monitoring Cycles
- 24.18 Summing Up
- 24.19 Glossary
- 24.20 Answer to Check Your Progress Exercises
- 24.21 References
- 24.22 Questions for Reflection and Practice

24.1 INTRODUCTION

“The Participative process aims to increase the use of evaluation results through the involvement of intended users in the design and administration of program evaluations. Participants may also share responsibility for the evaluation report with an external evaluator”

– (Smits and Champagne, 2004; Turnbull, 1999)

The Participatory Approach is an important guide for Community Development interventions. It enables people to reap benefits and reduces costs for development entailed through a top-down approach. The people are directly involved in and take ownership in decision-making processes. It aims at bottom-up, community-driven, empowering, educative initiatives liberating the vulnerable groups particularly in rural areas. It aligns with bottom-up, community-driven, needs-based approaches. It also stresses partnerships, collaborations and shared ownership in order to usher in development through a bottom-up approach.

Participatory planning is an urban or rural planning paradigm that emphasizes involving the entire community in the strategic and management processes of urban planning or, community-level planning processes, urban or rural. It is often considered as part of community development. A participatory approach is needed in gender planning which leads to the development of the whole nation. Gender planning prioritizes the needs and conditions in which women live and work as a site for change. It involves a critical analysis of the gaps between women's and men's access to economic, social, political and cultural resources. This analysis enables the development of policy initiatives to correct the imbalances – including cases where men are not benefiting equally from the development planning approaches currently in use. Gender planning should not be seen as a separate, parallel process to mainstream development planning but should transform mainstream planning to address the needs of women and poor people generally through an economically, socially and environmentally sustainable process.

This Unit helps to understand the participatory approach (its origin, principles and advantages); community involvement and mainstreaming gender in the planning process through a participatory approach.

24.2 OBJECTIVES

After studying this Unit, you should be able to:

- define the concept of ‘participatory approach’ and its significance in the context of a gender perspective;
- describe general principles of the participatory approach in planning, implementing and monitoring;
- explain the methods, approaches, and different means of the participatory approach;
- analyze the advantages and challenges of participatory approaches; and
- explain the participatory approach in gender planning.

24.3 ORIGIN AND GROWTH OF PARTICIPATORY APPROACHES

At first in the UN Habitat document “Building Bridges through Participatory Planning”, Fred Fisher, president of the International Development Institute for

Organization and Management, identifies Participatory Reflection and Action as the leading school of participatory planning. He identifies Paulo Freire and Kurt Lewin as key pioneers, as well as claiming planning fathers Patrick Geddes and Lewis Mumford as participatory planners. Freire's belief that poor and exploited people can and should be, enabled to analyze their own reality was a fundamental inspiration for the participatory planning movement. Lewin's relevance lay in his integration of democratic leadership, group dynamics, experiential learning, action research and open systems theory and his efforts to overcome racial and ethnic injustices.

In general, PRA has been supplanted by Participatory Learning and Action (PLA), which emphasizes the links between the participatory process and action. Related work has been done on community-based participatory research (CBPR).

24.4 PARTICIPATORY LEARNING AND ACTION (PLA)

PLA, in a nutshell, refers to a way to help people to participate together in learning and then act on that learning. PLA is a growing family of approaches, tools, attitudes and behaviours to enable and empower people to present, share, analyze and enhance their knowledge of life and conditions and to plan, act, monitor, evaluate, reflect and scale-up community action.

Anyone who is willing to "give it a go" can use PLA. The tools are flexible and adaptable; they can be used with different types of people, in different situations and for different purposes. PLA is especially useful for helping those who are the most vulnerable and weaker sections in the community. Those who are trying to reduce the social or economic impact of any problem in the community will involve themselves in PLA. Additionally, PLA can also be used by those who wish to influence government policy and programmes. Although they are most often used with communities, PLA tools can also be used to help communities, organizations and government institutions to analyze, plan, act, monitor, evaluate and reflect together. In this way, PLA provides a very effective means to mobilize communities to address any issue or problem.

24.5 STAGES AND PROCESS OF PLA

PLA can be used at every stage of community mobilization. It can help you to get a community together to address issues and problems, analyze a situation together, decide what needs doing together, make plans, act on those plans, check on how those actions are going, evaluate those actions and reflect on what needs to be done next.

PLA can be used in both rural and urban settings and rich and poor areas. It has been used in both northern and southern countries. PLA is best used wherever people feel most comfortable discussing the issues and problems. This may be in formal workshops, offices, church meetings or health facilities or in informal meeting places such as bars, people's homes or under a shady tree.

PLA is guided by a facilitator, who helps people to use the tools and ensure that everyone is able to participate equally. As such, people facilitating PLA need to adopt the right attitudes and behaviours to become a facilitator. PLA activities also need to be carefully planned. PLA has been evolving since the 1970s. Many different ways to do PLA have been developed. These vary according to who they are being used with, where and for what purpose. Although the methods of PLA may change, they all have the same principles. Together, these principles make up the PLA approach.

24.6 PRINCIPLES OF PLA IN PLANNING, IMPLEMENTING AND MONITORING

This section explores the key principles of PLA and their application during the processes of planning, implementing and monitoring.

Participation: All people have a right to play an active and influential part in shaping the decisions which affect their lives. Often vulnerable and weaker sections of people are not fully included in the process of local action on the issues affecting them, even though it is they who have to live with the outcomes of a programme. People who use PLA approaches believe that weaker and vulnerable people should participate together at every stage of local action on planning, implementing and monitoring. Those who use PLA also believe that the people should not just participate actively, but also influentially. This means that the views and opinions of people are not just listened to, but also heard. Their voices should have the power to shape and control local actions. There are different types of participation and not all of these types will allow people to actively and influentially shape decisions which affect their lives.

Table 24.1: Types of community participation

Level of Community Control	Types of Participation	Level of Sustainability
High ↑ Low	Self-mobilization: Affected communities start action on issues without outside help. Joint decision-making: Affected communities and organizations make decisions together on an equal basis. Functional participation: Affected communities are invited to participate at a particular stage of action to fulfil a particular purpose. Participation for Material Incentives: Affected communities participate in an activity only because they need the material benefit of doing so, e.g. money Consultation: Affected communities are asked about an activity by an organization, but their views may or may not have any influence on it. Information giving: People are simply informed that an activity will take place and have no say in activity design or management.	High ↑ Low

PLA is designed to help people to participate in joint decision-making with organizations. It can also help them to self-mobilize to address issues. This increases the level of community control over an activity. It also increases the likelihood that the activity will be kept going by the community after the organization has left.

Valuing local knowledge and experience: People living in a particular community in a particular way have expert knowledge of how an issue affects their community

and way of life. It is this expert knowledge which organizations value. Local people often know a lot more about how an issue affects their lives than outside organizations think they do.

A commitment to empowerment: Empowerment is the process of increasing the capacity of individuals or groups to make choices and to transform those choices into desired actions and outcomes (World Bank, 2003).

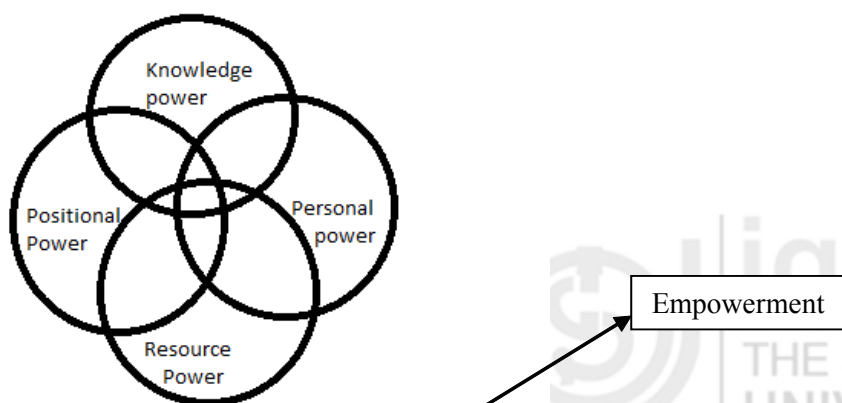
In order to feel empowered to address issues affecting individuals, communities and organizations, there is need to strengthen four types of power:

Resource power – access to and influence over, resources to deal with issues.

Knowledge power – an understanding of how to cope with the issues and problems.

Positional power – the ability to negotiate rights and entitlements and fulfill responsibilities and obligations to cope with the issues and problems.

Personal power – a sense of self-esteem and self-worth, a personal realization and motivation to claim resource, knowledge and positional power to cope with issues and problems.



Source: *Tools Together Now (100 participatory tools to mobility communities for HIV/AIDS)*, International Alliance Project www.aidalliance.org.

All people have at least some power. PLA approaches aim to make full use of the power found in communities and to strengthen it further in order to empower people and organizations to address issues together.

Group analysis and learning: It is only through people and organizations working closely together that a full understanding of a situation can come about and the most appropriate action can be taken.

Through people sharing their knowledge and experience of issues in groups, the full complexity of the situation can be understood. Participants can also see both the diversity of experience and knowledge as well as what they share. Group analysis also leads to debate and discussion on issues and this can increase the group's motivation to take action on the problems, needs and issues.

Using a mixture of visual and verbal techniques: Through diagrams, drawings and shared experiences, all people are able to take part in complex analyses and learning on an equal basis.

Using visual tools allows people to take part in analysis and planning at a level at which they are comfortable. Such tools allow them to engage in complex analysis regardless of age, gender, culture, literacy level, social or economic status.

PLA also uses performing arts (such as drama and role play) to encourage people to express themselves in a way in which they feel comfortable. Both are accompanied by sensitive questioning and facilitation. Therefore, visual and verbal

techniques complement each other. More important than the tool itself is the way in which people are encouraged to voice their opinions and feel heard.

Actively seeking the unheard voice: The weaker sections/vulnerable people who normally do not have an opportunity to have a say in decisions (for any reason) are actively sought out and included in planning, implementing and monitoring action.

Sometimes people simply do not want to have a voice in certain decisions and this must be respected. But, at other times, people are either intentionally or unintentionally excluded from having a say in decisions which affect their lives. This might be because of age, gender, sexuality, status, class, caste, level of literacy, social or economic status, where they live or any number of other reasons.

It is often those who have least say in decisions affecting their lives who are most affected or vulnerable – for example, the poor, people who live in remote areas, AIDS orphans, women, migrants or displaced people, people who are stigmatized or discriminated against because of their status. A principle of PLA is that those affected or vulnerable who want to have a say should have a say. So those facilitating PLA will actively try to find out who wants to participate but are being excluded and then try to include them. In this way, weaker and vulnerable people are able to take action to cope with it.

Emphasizing right attitudes and behaviours

For all affected people to participate actively and influentially in action, people facilitating PLA must develop attitudes and behaviours that include rather than exclude all people. It is not good enough just to include marginalized and excluded people in action. What is more important is how we include them.

Desirable Attitudes and Behaviours in Facilitating the Participatory Approach

- Trust people so that they can analyze, plan, act, monitor, evaluate and reflect.
- Do not lecture or dominate people.
- Listen to people.
- Learn from people and share your own knowledge as appropriate.
- Do not judge people, but do challenge harmful ideas to help people see things in a new way.
- Respect people and be friendly.
- Be honest with people about intentions and expected outcomes.
- Embrace error and learn from mistakes.
- Have fun!
- Do not rush; let things evolve at their own pace.
- Relax with people.
- Do not work for people; work with them. Better still be with them.

Check Your Progress Exercise 1

Note: i) Use this space given below to answers the questions.

ii) Compare your answers with the one given at the end of this Unit.

1) State the four types of power to be built in order to bring empowerment.

2) Define PLA.

24.7 PARTICIPATORY APPROACH FOR COMMUNITY MOBILIZATION IN PLANNING, IMPLEMENTING AND MONITORING

PLA tools are aimed at helping organizations, groups and communities to address issues and problems together. PLA can be used as a way to help individuals, communities and organizations to mobilize jointly towards addressing the issues and to fulfill the needs and demands of the people. Because of its commitment to participation and seeking the ‘unheard voice’, it is also a very effective method to get hard-to-reach or hidden individuals or groups to participate in planning, implementing and monitoring the projects and programmes.

The Participatory Approach can also help to:

- **Empower people** – to become ‘makers and shapers’ of their own lives, communities and services; PLA achieves this through increasing people’s knowledge power, personal power, resource power and positional power;
- **Increase the effectiveness of projects** – because they can be ‘tailored’ by a specific community or group to their own specific needs;
- **Increase the efficiency of projects** – because more minds and materials are brought to bear on an issue;
- **Increase accountability between stakeholders** – through people being more aware of each other’s roles and responsibilities;
- **Build trust** – between different people and organizations in a community;
- **Increase ownership and control** – PLA can help give people a sense of ownership of a project and a sense of control over their own lives;
- **Increase sustainability** – because people learn new knowledge and skills during PLA which allow them to carry on assessing, planning and acting to address issues of the people; and
- **Enable people to claim their human rights** – participation is not just a good thing to do, it is a fundamental human right; PLA can also help people to claim their rights towards their development.

24.8 METHODS AND APPROACHES OF PRA AND PLA

We have recapitulated some of the key methods and approaches of Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) and participatory Learning and Action (PLA) in this section.

- Do-it-yourself: Local people as experts and teachers and outsiders as novices;
- Local analysis of secondary sources;
- Mapping and modeling;
 - Time lines and trend and change analysis;
 - Seasonal calendars;
 - Daily time-use analysis;
 - Institutional diagramming;
 - Matrix scoring and ranking;
 - Shared presentations and analysis and
- Participatory planning, budgeting, implementation and monitoring.

We use PRA and PLA in this planning process. During this process we try to answering the following questions:

- i) What are the resources?
- ii) What is desired to be achieved?
- iii) How should it be achieved and
- iv) What is actually achieved?

This implies monitoring, feedback, evaluation and modification and readjustments.

Planning of resources was introduced to achieve planned development to ensure rapid progress and equitable distribution of the fruits of progress. For this purpose it was necessary to lay emphasis on minimum needs of people, creation of infrastructure and employment, production of essential equipment and materials and to reduce dependence on foreign countries by making the country self-sufficient and self-reliant.

24.9 ADVANTAGES OF A PARTICIPATORY APPROACH

The important advantages of a participatory approach include:

- Participatory evaluation is an inclusive process, which fosters positive involvement of all stakeholders in the project.
- Results are measured during the project, allowing for evaluation of changes over the life of the project, not just results at the end.
- The path of the project can be altered or improved in response to on-going measurement of results, thus improving the final result.
- Collaboration is furthered through the process of Participatory Approach evaluation and the community ends up with skills that they did not have before (capacity building).
- Results from different projects in different communities can be compared and measured.

24.10 CHALLENGES OF A PARTICIPATORY APPROACH

We are often impressed with the potential of a participatory approach. However, serious challenges can confront those who adopt such an approach.

The following list illustrates some of the major challenges.

- Not all participants have the same power. Ensuring that all sections of the community are able to participate is a challenge for participatory planning. Some approaches, such as Community-Based Planning, separate the community into concerned groups so that the livelihoods and preferred outcomes of different social groups can be identified.
- Many experiences with Participatory Reflection and Action and participatory planning suffer from a lack of follow-up. PRA has often not been part of a system, but an ad-hoc process. Community-Based Planning has tried to overcome this by linking planning to the mainstream local government planning system.
- Another challenge is caused by a lack of funds to actually implement the plans, which can lead to participation fatigue and frustration among communities. For example, in the social-investment funds supported by the World Bank, participatory planning is often the first step, often leading to planning of infrastructure.
- Some methods for evaluation will be new for some participants while being familiar for others.
- Different participants know more about different parts of the project. So it can take more time to work together.
- Participants may not have a clear idea of what they need and want from the project and evaluation.
- It is easier to measure how many people participated than what difference their participation made.
- It is difficult to compare results with non-programme communities.
- Results from multiple communities need to be added up and compared.

Check Your Progress Exercise 2

Note: i) Use this space given below to answer the question.

ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit.

1) List the advantages of the participatory approach.

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24.11 APPLICATIONS OF PARTICIPATORY APPROACHES IN PLANNING, IMPLEMENTATION AND MONITORING PROGRAMMES AND POLICIES

How can we apply participatory approaches? This section highlights a range of applications in planning, implementation and monitoring of programmes and policies.

24.11.1 Participatory Budgeting

Participatory budgeting is a process of democratic deliberation and decision-making and a type of participatory democracy, in which stateholders in the community decide how to allocate part of a budget. Participatory budgeting allows people to identify, discuss and prioritize public spending projects.

Participatory budgeting is usually characterized by several basic design features: identification of spending priorities by community members, election of budget delegates to represent different communities, facilitation and technical assistance by public employees, local and higher level assemblies to deliberate and vote on spending priorities and the implementation of local direct-impact community projects.

Various studies have suggested that participatory budgeting results in more equitable public spending, higher quality of life, increased satisfaction of basic needs, greater government transparency and accountability, increased levels of public participation (especially by marginalized or poorer residents) and democratic and citizenship learning.

24.11.2 Public Participation

Public participation is a political principle or practice and may also be recognized as a right (right to public participation). The term public participation may be used interchangeably with the concept or practice of stakeholder engagement, and/or, popular participation.

Generally public participation seeks and facilitates the involvement of those potentially affected by or interested in a decision. The principle of public participation holds that those who are affected by a decision have a right to be involved in the decision-making process. Public participation implies that the public's contribution will influence the decision. Public participation may be regarded as a way of empowerment and as a vital part of democratic governance.

In the context of knowledge management, the establishment of ongoing participatory processes is seen in the facilitation of collective intelligence and inclusiveness, shaped by the desire for the participation of the whole community or society.

Public participation is part of “people-centred” or “human centric” principles, which have emerged in Western culture over the last thirty years and has had some bearings on education, business, public policy and international relief and development programmes. Public participation is advanced by the humanist movements and in the context of post-modernism. Public participation may be advanced as part of a “people first” paradigm shift. In this respect, public participation may challenge the concept that “big is better” and the logic of centralized hierarchies, advancing alternative concepts of “more heads are better than one” and arguing that public participation can sustain productive and durable change.

24.11.3 Public Policy

In some countries public participation has become a central principle of public policy making. In the UK it has been observed that all levels of government have started to build citizen and stakeholder engagement into their policy-making processes. This may involve large-scale consultations, focus group research, online discussion forums or deliberative citizens’ juries. Public participation is viewed as a tool, intended to inform planning, organizing or funding of activities. Public participation may also be used to measure attainable objectives, evaluate impact and identify lessons for future practice.

In the USA public participation in administrative rulemaking refers to the process by which proposed rules are subject to public comment for a specified period of time. Public participation is typically mandatory for rules promulgated by executive agencies of the US government. Statutes or agency policies may mandate public hearings during this period.

24.11.4 Public Trust

In recent years loss of public trust in authorities and politicians has become a widespread concern in many democratic societies. Public participation is regarded as one potential solution to the crisis in public trust and governance, particularly in the UK, Europe and other democracies. The idea is that the public should be involved more fully in the policy process in that authorities seek public views and participation, instead of treating the public simply as passive recipients of policy decisions.

The underlying assumption by political theorists, social commentators and even politicians is that public participation increases public trust in authorities, improving citizen's political efficacy, enhancing democratic ideals and even improving the quality of policy decisions. However, the assumed benefits of public participation are yet to be confirmed.

24.11.5 Accountability and Transparency

Public participation may also be viewed as accountability enhancing. The argument put forth is that public participation can be a means for the participating communities to hold public authorities accountable for implementation.

24.11.6 Participatory Development

In the economic development theory, the school of participatory development says that the desire to increase public participation in humanitarian aid and development has led to the establishment of numerous context-specific, formal methodologies, matrices, pedagogies and adhoc approaches. These include conscientization and praxis; Participatory action research (PAR), rapid rural appraisal (RRA) and participatory rural appraisal (PRA); appreciation influence control analysis (AIC); "open space" approaches; objectives oriented project planning (ZOPP); vulnerability analysis and capacity analysis.

24.11.7 Environmental and Sustainable Development

In recent years public participation has come to be seen as a vital part of addressing environmental problems and bringing about sustainable development. In this context, the limits of solely relying on technocratic bureaucratic monopoly of decision making have been recognized. It is argued that public participation allows governments to adopt policies and enact laws that are relevant to communities and take into account their needs. Public participation is recognized as an environmental principle.

24.11.8 Right to Public Participation

In some jurisdictions the right to public participation is enshrined by law. The right to public participation may also be conceived of as a human right or as manifestation of the right to freedom of association and freedom of assembly.

As such, the Netherlands, Germany, Denmark and Sweden, have public participation and freedom of information provisions in their legal systems since before the Middle Ages. Democracy and public participation are closely connected. Democratic societies have incorporated public participation rights into their laws for centuries. For example, in the US the right to petition has been part of the first Amendment

of the US constitution since 1791. More recently, since the 1970s in New Zealand numerous laws (eg. health, local government, environmental management) require government officials to “consult” those affected by a matter and take their views into consideration when making decisions.

Effective public participation depends on the public having access to accurate and comprehensive information. Hence, laws regarding public participation often deal with the issue of the right to know, access of information and freedom of information. The right to participation may also be advanced in the context of equality and group rights, meant to ensure equal and full participation of a designated group in society.

24.11.9 People's Participation

People's participation means participation of people in the administrative process. It implies citizen's control over administration or public influence on administration. It is essential for the smooth and effective performance of the administrative machinery. It makes the administration responsive to the needs of the people. It secures public support to the government policies and makes them a success. It constitutes an important means of enforcing administrative accountability.

A democratic government is based on the doctrine of popular sovereignty which means that the people are supreme in a democracy. The final authority in democracy is vested in the people. Therefore, administration in democracy is or should finally and ultimately be responsible to the people. It is in this context that the people's participation in administration assumes importance. It transfers the representative democracy into participatory democracy. It facilitates the bottom-up rule. People's participation in administration can be studied under two heads – participation in general administration and participation in development administration.

Participation in General Administration

The people cannot generally have a definite and regular influence on administration. Hence, the public influence on the administrative process is mainly indirect and informal. However, there are certain formal modes of people's participation in administration. They are:

- Election;
- Recall;
- Pressure groups;
- Advisory committees; and
- Public opinion.

Participation in Development Administration

People's participation in development administration means the direct involvement of people in the process of administering development programmes meant for bringing about socio-economic changes in the society. It embraces the following dimensions:

- Participation in decision making;
- Participation in implementation;
- Participation in monitoring and evaluation; and
- Participation in sharing benefits.

People participate in development administration through various mechanisms like Panchayati Raj institutions, cooperative institutions, Mahila Mandals, farmer's service societies, Yuvak Kendras and other voluntary/non-governmental organizations.

Advantages of People's Participation in Development Administration

Some of the advantages of people's participation in development administration include:

- It provides administration a wealth of information on local socio-cultural, economic, ecological and technical conditions. This information is highly useful in the process of planning, programming and implementation of development programmes.
- It leads to the selection of those projects which are of direct relevance to the people.
- It facilitates mobilization of local resources in the form of cash, labour, materials and so on which are very essential for the programme's success.
- It acts as a safeguard against the abuse of administrative authority and thus reduces the scope for corruption in the operation of programmes.
- It prevents the hijacking of programme benefits by richer and powerful sections due to the direct involvement of poorer and weaker sections of the society. Thus, it leads to the equitable distribution of benefits.
- It makes the local community easily accept the developmental change and encourages them to be more tolerant towards mistakes and failures.
- It reduces the financial burden on government by sustaining the programmes even after the withdrawal of its support. They can be managed by the volunteers or community – based workers.
- It enhances the ability and competence of the people to assume responsibility and solve their own problems. It develops a spirit of self-reliance, initiative and leadership among the people.
- It strengthens grassroots democracy.

Factors Limiting the Degree and Effectiveness of People's Participation in Administration

We now list some of the factors which limit the degree and effectiveness of people's participation in administration.

- a) Aristocratic and mechanical bureaucracy;
- b) Unfavourable socio-economic environment like casteism, communalism, poverty, illiteracy and so on;
- c) Negative political interference;
- d) Time constraints, that is, time bound nature of the programme;
- e) Role of middlemen and sycophants;
- f) Corruption and low standards of conduct in administration;
- g) Faulty administrative procedures; and
- h) Lack of participative culture.

24.12 LESSONS LEARNED FROM IMPLEMENTING PARTICIPATORY APPROACHES IN PLANNING

Participatory approaches have been employed in planning in different contexts. What are the lessons learned? This section summarizes important lessons.

1) **Access to information, tools and training**

Proponents need information, tools and training to develop a comprehensive understanding of the participatory approach (PA)

2) **Multi-stakeholder involvement**

Involving all levels of community (seniors, youth, businesses, rich, poor etc.) and other stakeholder groups (NGOs), government agencies, education/academic institutions) increases creativity, access to resources, expertise and solutions

3) **Flexible timelines and funding arrangements**

Flexible funding supports face-to-face meetings necessary to foster partnership development and commitment by all participants, especially the rural people.

4) **Personal rather than institutional relationships**

Personal involvement increases levels of trust and willingness to engage and cooperate; fosters ownership and generates empowerment

5) **Strong leadership and coordination**

6) **Open and strong communication**

The participatory approach requires strong and open communication between partners, proponents, community members and coordinators.

7) **Mutual benefits**

PA reduces barriers and demonstrates mutual benefits rather than competing for scarce resources; emphasizes partners instead of competitors

8) **Community mobilization**

PA results in strong ties between participants, increased by enthusiasm and mobilization of community to create change

24.13 LESSONS LEARNED FROM EVALUATION: THE PARTICIPATORY APPROACH MODEL

Some of the major lessons drawn from experience have been summarized in this section.

1) **Time factor**

It is important to accommodate input from multiple participants and allow for participants to understand PA evaluation and develop an evaluation process (e.g., suitable language: 'evaluation' to 'valuing').

2) **Community applicability and utility**

PA evaluation ensures results are useful to the community as participants from the community are developing and implementing their own evaluation.

3) **Evaluation as learning not simply accountability**

Evaluation is revealed as a way to value and improve one's work, not as a measure of failure/success that may lead to denial of resources.

4) **Streamlined and simplified reporting**

Less complicated reporting systems (suggestions of a universal streamlined reporting system) may be adopted.

5) **Tools and support for PA**

Streamlined and simplified participatory evaluation (universal) guidelines, early PA and evaluation training and ongoing PA and evaluation support are important inputs.

6) **Pre-planned exit strategies and follow-up**

Exit and follow-up strategies need to be planned in advance. Follow-up after cessation of funding; analysis and communication plan before the implementation of the model need to be elaborated.

7) **Consistent government and personal involvement**

Consistent involvement of stakeholders would emphasize on-going communication with proponents; contingencies for staff turnover and personal involvement.

8) **Community impacts/outcomes**

Attribution of community-level impacts/outcomes to model activities may be tenuous.

This requires more time for community-level contributions.

9) **Baseline data and instruments**

Semi-structured, consistent and ongoing data collection (qualitative and quantitative) capturing stories and facilitating analysis, comparability and roll-up. It makes a balance between community needs and needs of programme evaluation.

10) **Evidence-based analysis plan**

At the outset, a clear and evidence-based plan for analysis of information from proponents, including roles and responsibilities of analysts is important.

11) **Integrated programme and policy goals**

Analysis and results must be linked to overall goals of programme and policy.

24.14 **MONITORING AND EVALUATION**

Monitoring is an ongoing process of data collection that allows project managers and the community to examine positive and negative trends and readjust their strategies accordingly. Monitoring focuses on measuring outputs – process and products related to the project implementation. It is done on a regular basis throughout the life of a project and helps ensure that the project stays on track. One way to monitor a project is to track process indicators or output indicators. In practical terms, monitoring and evaluation are very similar. In fact, monitoring is sometimes referred to as “on-going evaluation.” Both monitoring and evaluation can be conducted using the same methods, which will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

Making Monitoring and Evaluation "Participatory"

While monitoring and evaluation of development projects have traditionally been done for the benefit of government, donors or sponsoring agencies, the main goal of *participatory monitoring and evaluation* is to build the community's capacity to track the progress of its own development. Data are collected about the progress of activities so that the community can make its own decisions about:

- What is working well;
- What is not working well; and
- How to proceed next.

Community members are the key players and decision-makers in the Participatory Monitoring and Evaluation process, although this does not exclude outsiders from the government, sponsoring agency or donors. On the contrary, successful Participatory Monitoring and Evaluation requires support from the highest levels of these organizations. Staff of the programmes and projects only play an advisory role, however, and leave the actual monitoring to the community members.

24.15 IMPLEMENTING A STRATEGIC PLAN

One of the most challenging aspects of planning is implementing the plan – getting “what is on paper” to “come to life” and achieving the goals and strategies included in the plan. Work for successful implementation of a plan needs to begin when work on the plan begins and continues through the implementation.

Communicate: Organizational communication about the plan and the planning process needs to start as soon as the planning process is determined. While sharing a detailed planning process right at the start may not be possible, you may be able to let people know the reasons why the organization is beginning the process to develop a plan, how the plan will be used within the organization and what the impact of having a longer-term plan will be on the organization and the nature of the task to be accomplished.

Engage: All or representative groups of constituents within and outside the organization should be involved during the planning process. Their inputs should be sought and collated. There are many ways to do this – face to face town meetings or focus group discussions, surveys, task forces on specific issues or topics or involving a large group in the actual drafting of the plan. The best fit will be determined by the culture and size of the organization.

Align: An effective plan cannot be developed in a vacuum. Be aware of trends in your field, the environment you work in and the direction of any larger organization the implementing unit belongs to. It has to be ensured that the resulting strategies and goals of a plan are aligned with any higher level organizational goals.

24.16 PARTICIPATORY APPROACH IN GENDER PLANNING, IMPLEMENTATION AND MONITORING

Gender planning prioritizes the needs and conditions in which women live and work as a site for change. It involves a critical analysis of the gaps between women’s and men’s access to economic, social, political and cultural resources. This analysis enables the development of policy initiatives to correct the imbalances – including cases where men are not benefiting equally from the development planning approaches currently in use.

Gender planning should not be seen as a separate, parallel process to mainstream development planning but should transform mainstream planning to address the needs of women and poor people generally through an economically, socially and environmentally sustainable process. The planning process should be located in an equality base where men and women will be benefited equally without any discrimination.

24.17 MAINSTREAMING GENDER IN PLANNING, IMPLEMENTING AND MONITORING CYCLES

Gender-aware policy planning, implementing and monitoring are important tools to effect a positive change in women's conditions. Gender-aware policies and plans are more likely to respond to deep seated patterns of discrimination against women when women themselves collectively analyze and contribute to policy-making and planning processes. In cases where men are not benefiting equally from development planning strategies, a gender-aware approach enables interventions to correct the imbalance. There are usually four major planning cycles through which most developing countries seek to respond to national needs and issues. These are: the macro/sectoral policy cycle, the budget cycle, the aid cycle and the project cycle. These cycles when brought together through a planning process usually reflect a government's medium term (5-10 year period) expenditure plan. In establishing macro policy frameworks, gender analysis and outputs need to be included to ensure effective policies which address the needs of all sectors of the population by getting views and approaches from each and every section. Approaches to policy-making which influence gender outcomes can be categorized in three types: gender-neutral, gender-specific and gender aware/redistributive/transformational. Generally, policy and programme interventions could fall within a welfare, equity or transformation/empowerment approach.

A welfare approach usually responds to meeting the practical needs of women (gender-specific), whereas a transformational approach responds to meeting strategic needs (gender-transformational). The potential of gender policy to transform gender relations and the gender-biased distribution of resources is greatly enhanced if that policy is developed through a participatory process involving key decision-makers within the department concerned and in other related sectors, as well as with the groups and communities the policy is intended to benefit. In the preparation of a gender-aware medium-term development plan, 'engendered' inputs from the macro and sectoral policy planning cycles can be combined to produce a medium-term plan of expenditure which then informs the preparation of annual budget expenditures. These then feed into the project cycles in the various sectors.

Check Your Progress Exercise 3

Note: i) Use this space given below to answer the question.

ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit.

1) Discuss the key features of any one approach of participatory planning.

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24.18 SUMMING UP

This Unit started with defining the concept of 'participatory approach' and its significance in the context of a gender perspective. Also, the Unit described general principles of the participatory approach in planning, implementing and monitoring and explained the methods and approaches, different participatory approaches. We have also analyzed the advantages and challenges of participatory approaches. The

last section dealt with application of the participatory approach in gender planning. Thus, in formulation of policies and programmes towards gender, development and equality, women and the other vulnerable groups have to participate in planning, implementation and monitoring. The general principles of PLA must be followed in all the stages of planning, implementing and monitoring incorporating sensitivity to a gender and development perspective.

24.19 GLOSSARY

Participatory Approach : The ‘power of knowledge’ arises from the process of participation. Thus, the professional monopoly of information used for planning and management is broken and a new local confidence is generated or reinforced. The external knowledge is locally assimilated.

Planning : Planning can be defined as a conscious effort on the part of any government to follow a definite pattern of economic development in order to promote rapid and fundamental change in the economy and society. Development planning is the process through which economic development is planned. Many countries, irrespective of their political ideology, use the process of development planning to achieve national goals.

Gender planning : Gender planning, as an approach, recognizes unequal relations between men and women but intervenes to change these patterns and symbolic codes. It seeks to address unequal gender relations which result in a skewed sexual division of labour, unequal access of women to basic resources, limited political representation of women in decision-making, a tacit acceptance of male violence against women and the continued subordination of women.

Gender-specific policies : A policy that is gender-specific takes into account gender differentials and targets women or men specifically, but leaves the current distribution of resources and responsibilities intact.

Monitoring : Monitoring is an ongoing process of data collection that allows project managers and the community to examine positive and negative trends and readjust their strategies accordingly.

24.20 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS EXERCISES

Check Your Progress Exercise 1

1) **Resource power** – Access to and influence over, resources to deal with issues.

Knowledge power – An understanding of how to cope with the issues and problems.

Positional power – The ability to negotiate rights and entitlements and fulfill responsibilities and obligations to cope with the issues and problems.

Personal power – A sense of self-esteem and self-worth, a personal realization and motivation to claim resources, knowledge and positional power to cope with issues and problems.

- 2) PLA, in a nutshell, is a way to help people to participate together in learning and then act on that learning. PLA is a growing family of approaches, tools, attitudes and behaviours to enable and empower people to present, share, analyze and enhance their knowledge of life and conditions and to plan, act, monitor, evaluate, reflect and scale-up community action.

Check Your Progress Exercise 2

- Participatory evaluation is an inclusive process, which fosters positive involvement of all stakeholders in the project.
- Results are measured during the project, allowing for evaluation of changes over the life of the project, not just results at the end.
- The path of the project can be altered or improved in response to on-going measurement of results, thus improving the final result.
- Collaboration is furthered through the process of Participatory Approach evaluation and the community ends up with skills that they did not have before (capacity building); and
- Results from different projects in different communities can be compared and measured.

Check Your Progress Exercise 3

- 1) Participatory Budgeting is a process of democratic deliberation and decision-making and a type of participatory democracy, in which communities decide how to allocate part of a budget. Participatory budgeting allows citizens to identify, discuss and prioritize public spending projects.

Participatory budgeting is usually characterized by several basic design features: identification of spending priorities by community members, election of budget delegates to represent different communities, facilitation and technical assistance by public employees, local and higher level assemblies to deliberate and vote on spending priorities and the implementation of local direct-impact community projects.

Various studies have suggested that participatory budgeting results in more equitable public spending, higher quality of life, increased satisfaction of basic needs, greater government transparency and accountability, increased levels of public participation (especially by marginalized or poorer residents) and democratic and citizenship learning.

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24.22 QUESTIONS FOR REFLECTION AND PRACTICE

- 1) Discuss general principles of participatory approaches.
- 2) What are the different applications of the participatory approach in planning different programmes and policies?
- 3) Critically evaluate the process of the participatory approach in development planning and implementation.
- 4) Suggest ways and means to mainstream gender in planning, implementation and monitoring.
- 5) Trace the participatory approach for community mobilization in planning, implementing and monitoring.

UNIT 25 IMPLEMENTING PLANS, NETWORKING AND CONVERGENCE

Implementing Plans,
Networking and Convergence

Structure

- 25.1 Introduction
- 25.2 Objectives
- 25.3 Process in Implementing Plans or Programmes
- 25.4 Essential Factors for Successful Project Implementation
- 25.5 Stages in Implementing Plans at Centre, State, Institutional and Local Levels
 - 25.5.1 Project Definition
 - 25.5.2 Policy Objective/Outcome
 - 25.5.3 Benefits Statement
 - 25.5.4 Evaluation Methodology
 - 25.5.5 Governance
 - 25.5.6 Scope/Deliverables
 - 25.5.7 Implementation Schedule
 - 25.5.8 Work Breakdown Structure
 - 25.5.9 Resources
 - 25.5.10 Risk Management
 - 25.5.11 Stakeholder Management
 - 25.5.12 Quality Assurance
- 25.6 Implementing Plans at Centre, State and Local Levels
- 25.7 Networking and Convergence
- 25.8 Role of National/International Bodies, Parastatals, NGOs in Implementing Plans towards Sustainable Development
- 25.9 Summing Up
- 25.10 Glossary
- 25.11 Answers to Check Your Progress Exercises
- 25.12 References
- 25.13 Questions for Reflection and Practice

25.1 INTRODUCTION

Plans are prepared for the welfare of the people. The central, state and local governments were involved in formulating, executing and monitoring plans. Formulated projects, plans and policies must be implemented and evaluated for welfare of people by the centre, state and local government. After a project or programme is planned, it needs to be implemented. Implementation will be timely and effective if it is planned properly. When the project is being implemented, it needs to be assessed continuously in relation to the *agreed schedules*. The use of *inputs, infrastructure and services* should also be assessed at the same time. In other words, the project has to be monitored during implementation to identify actual and potential successes and problems as early as possible. This will make possible timely adjustments in the operation of the project.

Personnel and communities, money and materials are needed for effective implementation of each and every plan in order to achieve the goals or objectives

of a programme or project. Often a smoothly run project or plan faces contentious issues because of problems during implementation. These problems often arise because we do not anticipate and plan for the complexity of deploying the solution. The project or plan implementation focuses on methodology. We will explore processes and stages in plan implementation emphasizing the essential factors determining success in project implementation in this Unit. The important features and contributions of networking and convergence would also be discussed.

25.2 OBJECTIVES

After studying this Unit, you should be able to:

- define the concept of the ‘implementation process’ and its significance in a programme;
- explain the process and essential factors in implementing plans at centre, state and local government levels;
- examine different stages in implementing programmes; and
- analyze the role of International, National organizations, parastatals, NGOs, CBOs in implementing programmes towards sustainable development.

25.3 PROCESS IN IMPLEMENTING PLANS OR PROGRAMMES

Once a plan is formulated, the following steps should be followed for implementing or executing projects or programmes.

Seeking support of senior leadership

Senior leadership should be visibly behind the plan. Sharing with the organization the information they receive in progress reports is one way of seeking support. This helps to demonstrate that the organization is supportive of implementing the plan and keeping it from becoming a “shelf” document.

Communicating Within and Between Organizations

The plan should be shared within and outside the organizational multiple formats, adapted to the needs of the audience – the Web, brief brochures and detailed action plans. Information should be regularly updated to reflect progress and accomplishments.

Engaging people

Implementing strategies involves considerable work – it is implementing change. Engaging more people will make it possible to spread the workload. Those people engaged in the implementation will feel more ownership for the plan and the changes that result.

Setting priorities

All of the goals and strategies in the plan cannot be implemented and accomplished at the same time. Activities should be spread out over the life of the plan. Strategies should be reviewed and the best places to start need to be determined. This may be influenced by opportunities for quick successes, by a logical ordering of strategies that depend on actions completed in earlier strategies or by an annual cycle of organizational activities. A matrix that shows when each strategy will be started and how long it will take to complete may be a useful attachment to the plan.

Setting a point person or leader for each goal or initiative

One designated point of contact for an initiative will make it easier to share information, monitor the status and coordinate work across all components of the plan.

Identifying measures

Measures and clear expectations make it possible to assess progress made on a strategy, successes achieved and accomplishment of goals. The plan should be data informed, not data-driven. Data, as you know, is a means to an end, not an end in itself.

Linking the plan to daily activities

The plan should be kept visible by integrating it into regular activities such as staff meetings and professional development plans. Strategies should be detailed to show how they are related to daily activities.

Setting milestones within the plan

Like project management, action plans should be developed for individual initiatives within the plan. We need to determine who is responsible for what, when it will be started and completed and what intermediate accomplishments are needed to achieve final results. This will help to determine when adjustments need to be made and make progress more apparent.

Defining an easy way to track and summarize progress

Being able to recognize even partial accomplishments and progress can be rewarding and motivating. Resources should, however, be focused on implementing the initiatives, not on tracking progress.

Recognizing accomplishments

Recognizing what has been done can generate energy to accomplish more. One should not wait until a project or plan is completed to recognize and reward achievement. Recognizing past accomplishments and recognizing milestones during the implementation of an initiative is important.

Learning from the past

Plans are not “written in stone”. As they are implemented, trends and the environment should be monitored. The implementation approaches that work well and which need refinement should be tracked and then future implementation approaches should be adopted. We should remember that planning is not about producing a plan; it is about leadership engaging others to achieve the organizational or project/programme vision. Planning falls short when the course is charted, the direction set and nothing more happens. Planning is a process that includes charting a direction, determining the course and reaching a destination. A plan is needed for implementing goals and strategies in addition to identifying them in order to reach your destination.

25.4 ESSENTIAL FACTORS FOR SUCCESSFUL PROJECT IMPLEMENTATION

Some of the essential factors for successful project implementation include:

- Adequate formulation;
- Sound project organization;

- Proper implementation planning;
- Advance action;
- Timely availability of funds;
- Better management; and
- Effective control and monitoring of the progress of the project or programme.

25.5 STAGES IN IMPLEMENTING PLANS AT CENTRE, STATE, INSTITUTIONAL AND LOCAL LEVELS

Implementation plans should be:

- succinct, but not so much to the point that important information is not mentioned;
- jargon-free – they should be capable of being understood by everyone using them;
- based on a sound programme logic, presenting a clear line of sight from the original proposal and the government's expectations, to the inputs and how they will contribute to the achievement of those expectations; the outputs to be delivered; why and how those outputs are expected to deliver the outcomes sought and the assumptions made about those links; and how this delivery chain and its supporting assumptions will be evaluated;
- clear on timeframes and project phases, especially where there are interdependencies with other programmes or measures or critical requirements such as the passage of legislation or negotiations with the States and their districts; and
- clear on the decision pathways forward – often both the objectives and the means to achieving those objectives are uncertain. Implementations plans need to recognize the unknowns as well as the knowns and explain how and when the unknowns will be addressed.

25.5.1 Project Definition

The implementation plan should provide answers to the following questions:

- **What** is this project aiming to achieve?
- **Why** is it important to achieve it?
- **How** will we know if the objectives have been met?

Most of this information can usually be drawn directly from existing documentation developed during the project initiation phase. This section sets the framework for dealing with the “expectations” part of the objective “on time, on budget and on expectations”.

25.5.2 Policy Objective/Outcome

The following steps would be needed to implement a plan or policy:

- a) Setting the approved policy objective;
- b) Elaborating the policy context or environment, including the underlying need or problem, related policies currently in place and any previous policies, cross-

jurisdictional or cross-portfolio issues, the legislative and regulatory environment and key research and information that will influence the policy direction;

- c) Getting approvals up to date including enabling legislation, relevant decisions by government and work already completed; and
- d) Identifying the policy solution and deciding on and implementing the delivery model or strategy for achieving the approved policy objective – this may be a brief statement of how the outputs will be delivered, how these outputs will achieve the desired outcome (policy objective) and how this outcome aligns with the Government's strategic policy agenda, the agency's plan and outputs/outcomes framework.

Note for Cross Portfolio Measures: Where multiple agencies are involved in implementation of a measure, this section should clearly show which agencies are responsible for the various aspects of the policy solution.

25.5.3 Benefits Statement

The purpose of this step is to describe measurable benefits expected to flow from the policy, enabling agencies to demonstrate that intended outcomes are being achieved. The Benefits Statement should provide a clear description of the intended beneficiaries and expected benefits of the policy measure. Indirect benefits should only be included if they are to be evaluated as part of the policy objective.

The planner should describe the following aspects:

- a) The intended beneficiaries for each policy objective as accurately as possible (noting any assumptions, constraints or exclusions);
- b) The benefits expected to be realized by specific project/policy deliverables:
 - Direct benefits accrue to the intended beneficiaries of the policy such as the unemployed, small to medium size businesses, a particular environmental sector etc. Indirect benefits (or externalities) accrue to other beneficiaries such as the community and society more broadly.
 - Some discretion is needed to decide whether or not to include the indirect benefits of a policy measure in the benefits statement. If the indirect benefits are an important part of the policy objective then they should be included in the statement of benefits.

The objectives, in **SMARTA** terms should be:

- Specific;
- Measurable;
- Achievable;
- Relevant;
- Time framed; and
- Agreed.

Performance measures should adopt the right **FABRIC** as follows:

- **Focused** on the concerned department's/agency's aims and objectives, relevant to what it is aiming to achieve and the scale and complexity of the particular measure or package of measures;

- **Appropriate** and useful for those who will use these measures. Performance measures should clearly link outcomes to the agency's work (establishing intermediate outcomes if final outcomes are subject to too many factors that are not directly in the agency's control);
- **Balanced** in their reflection of priorities and total effort;
- **Robust** – data should be clearly defined and collected consistently, measures should be easy to understand and use, data should be collected frequently enough to track progress and quickly enough for the data to still be useful, measures should be reliable, comparable and verifiable;
- **Integrated** in existing performance management processes; and
- **Cost-effective**.

Many agencies have difficulty separating out the success factors for the implementation process as opposed to success in terms of a measure's outcomes or impacts. It often happens that an implementation process is quite successful – everything happened on time and within the budget – but the expectations of the government or the community were not met. The implementation plan needs to articulate a framework in which the success of the implementation process can be monitored, but is linked to an evaluation of the overall outcomes.

25.5.4 Evaluation Methodology

This section should answer the question – **how** will we know if the policy objective has been achieved? **What method** will be used to measure this?

Milestones, tracked through the Cabinet Implementation Unit reporting process in the case of Indian Government will focus on outcomes, such as the expected impacts or level of user take-up, as well as the development of products, services and programmes and their roll-out.

The evaluation methodology should be designed and shaped by the objectives and performance measures in the benefits statement.

The evaluation strategy should include a schedule showing when monitoring and evaluation will occur and who will be responsible for this. Where formal evaluations are undertaken, care should be taken to avoid conflict of interest.

The planner may need to consider the importance of mid-term evaluations, interim progress reports or post-implementation reviews as a means of providing early feedback to government on progress towards success and as a means of meeting accountability and transparency requirements. The planner may also wish to consider the adoption of internal Gateway processes as a way of ensuring continuing alignment between the project and the government's expectations.

The development of performance indicators to measure progress, both quantitative and qualitative, should be undertaken with care. If the skills to develop performance indicators are not part of the skill set of the proposed project team, then the project manager may wish to include 'indicator development' skills in the 'Resource' section. Performance indicators may be developed for both the policy as a whole and for each phase or activity.

Agencies should provide supporting documentation for each indicator identifying information needed, collection cost and method, frequency of reporting, validity, reliability etc.

25.5.5 Governance

This sub-section deals with one of the most important aspects of the plan, because

unclear governance arrangements pose a major risk to every other aspect of a measure's implementation. Some of the critical issues include:

- How will executive support for and commitment to the implementation be maintained and supported, the most critical element in project success?
- Who is going to manage the various implementation processes?
- Who are they accountable to and what are they responsible for?
- Are there bodies outside the relevant line department or the agency concerned, who have a formal decision making or advisory role? How will this framework operate?
- What rules and procedures for decision making will apply?

Governance arrangements should cover all internal agency reporting lines and lines of accountability, including relevant agency boards or executive committees.

External reporting lines and accountability mechanisms should also be identified, including any relevant ministerial councils, committees, cross-jurisdictional or cross-portfolio bodies.

This section should also identify the reporting processes in place to ensure that the sponsor and any other relevant executives are kept informed at regular intervals of progress and any emerging issues.

The planner should identify:

- The project 'sponsor' – the senior executive officer within the agency responsible for ensuring delivery of the policy. Names and positions should be supplied.
- The project 'leader' responsible for oversight in the management of implementation.
- The project 'manager' responsible for managing operations and the project team. This person may be the same as the project 'leader' in some cases.
- The key accountabilities – for example the 'sponsor' may report directly to the agency head and minister, as well as to an internal agency executive committee and to external advisory or steering groups; the project manager may report to the project 'leader' or directly to the 'sponsor' but may also be accountable to an adhoc working group or task force.

This may be illustrated in an organizational chart or in a table such as the following:

Governance Role	Responsibility of:	Accountable to:		
		Working Group	Ministerial Council	
Government	Minister for...			
Sponsor	Agency, Position	Joint Steering Committee	Minister	Agency CEO, Executive Board
Leader	Agency, Position	Inter-departmental Committee	Sponsor	Agency Risk and Audit Committee
Manager	Agency Position	Project Steering Committee	Leader	Sponsor

Note for Cross-Portfolio Measures: Ideally, a lead agency should agree to a mandate for identifying a project sponsor with overall governance responsibility across agencies. At a minimum, the lines of accountability between agencies should be transparent, with the roles and membership of steering committees, if any, clearly laid out together with the nature and frequency of reporting processes between agencies.

25.5.6 Scope/Deliverables

This section should list in tangible terms all the products and services to be delivered.

A deliverable is a measurable, tangible, verifiable output, result or item that must be produced to complete a project or part of a project.

For each deliverable, the planner should list the milestones that need to be achieved in order to achieve that deliverable. (A milestone is an important checkpoint along the way that tells planners, if the plans are on track to delivery. “Establishing a section” or “having a meeting with the States and Territories” are generally insufficient indicators of progress as they provide little information about whether the completion of these activities contributes to the overall measure being implemented).

Every deliverable has a cost. Where possible, the cost for each deliverable and milestone should add up to form the project budget.

If the project budget is a critical indicator of progress – for example, in the case of a procurement project – the planner should specify how the work will be done within budget and how work will be reported: for example, percentage complete, actual versus projected outlays and so on.

25.5.7 Implementation Schedule

This section should clearly outline what the project will be delivering and when. It sets the framework for dealing with the “on-time” part of the objective “on-time, on-budget and to expectations”.

The Implementation Schedule determines and defines the major phases of work that will be undertaken to achieve the desired policy objective(s) and the associated deliverables. It documents a logical sequence of events over time to enable progress of the policy from concept to delivery. It provides a foundation for the remainder of the implementation plan, including the work breakdown structure which will detail the related activities and tasks, responsibilities and timelines.

For most policy initiatives, major phases of work will overlap, run concurrently or sequentially. Explaining these interrelationships and interdependencies is an important task for the planners. For example, development of performance measures and an evaluation strategy should proceed concurrently with other ‘set-up’ work since different skills and, therefore, people are likely to be required. On the other hand, getting guidelines or eligibility criteria approved may depend on completion of an extensive consultation phase.

Project phasing is an important way of dealing with uncertainties. For example, it is a fact of public sector life that systems development will often have to proceed in advance of all the policy issues being sufficiently “nailed down”. This allows detailed business specifications to be developed. Similarly, issues around technology or functionality may be unresolved at the time the plan is being developed.

These are issues that need to be articulated here and in the risks section, particularly in identifying issues that are unresolved at the time – the plan needs to identify how those issues will be resolved, when and by whom.

The Implementation Schedule should provide the following information in a clear, easy-to-read format:

- Project phases;
- Deliverables associated with each phase;
- Major activities for each deliverable;
- Key milestones;
- Who is responsible for delivery of each major activity; and
- Any dependencies.

The planner should ensure that the Implementation Schedule has been checked by portfolio and programme delivery managers to ensure that targets are achievable and appropriate.

Note for Cross-Portfolio Measures: A Global Implementation Schedule which integrates the key activities of all the participating agencies and their sequence, together with any interdependencies, is a minimum requirement of cross-portfolio implementation plans. Typically this is the document against which progress will be monitored and assessed for reporting through the highest level Implementation Unit in the government.

25.5.8 Work Breakdown Structure

The Work Breakdown Structure (WBS) follows on from the Implementation Schedule and provides the detail behind each key activity showing tasks, deliverables and allocated resources including staff. WBSs vary depending on the complexity and type of project undertaken. There is no single format that must be adopted, as long as there is a clear line of sight between the Implementation Schedule, scope and WBS. For complex projects, a WBS will extend over many pages.

Key *phases* of work usually form the first-level element in the WBS, followed by the component elements of *activities* and *tasks* at the second and third levels. A further breakdown is possible with lower level tasks being regarded as phases or projects in their own right. Project resources such as staffing, IT and funding can be allocated at the activity/task level of the WBS.

The level of detail on these lower level activities should be no more than is required to assign responsibilities, timeframes and resources. The WBS should also identify dependencies where one piece of work depends on the completion of another.

A WBS may be provided in tabular format. This form lends itself to more detailed project management software. Alternatively, a high-level WBS may be provided as a tree diagram. Agencies are free to choose a format that suits their need.

25.5.9 Resource Allocation

In this sub-section we focus on the budget, non-financial resources and resource management strategies as well as procurement plans.

Budget

The budget section involves the allocation of administered and departmental funds against key project deliverables. This section sets the framework for dealing with the “on-budget” part of the objective “on-time, on-budget and to expectations”.

The principle underlying the implementation plan is cost control. This section will enable agencies to effectively track expenditure over time and provide early warning

of likely overspend/underspend or possible savings. In some cases, expenditure will be a critical indicator of progress.

It is critical that the budget reflects **whole of life** costings for the measure concerned and clearly distinguish departmental and administered items as well as distinguishing capital and operating expenses. Budgets should indicate:

- Departmental items/expenses allocated to project deliverables, such as:
 - staff resources (ASL – Average Staffing Level);
 - legal advice;
 - other services such as cost of updating internal financial management systems;
 - IT development if this is part of core activity;
 - cost of convening advisory/reference groups or steering committees;
 - costs of managing any tender process;
 - payments against contract milestones, based on expenditure forecasts;
 - cost of running pilot projects or prototype programmes;
 - cost of collecting baseline data e.g. consultancy costs;
 - cost of market testing or consultative processes if administered funds have been bid for and allocated for this purpose;
 - costs of convening tender panels, advisory/reference groups or steering committees; and
 - administered expenses such as grants, as these may be an important indicator of progress.

Non-financial Resources

Some of the non-financial resources and aspects of their management are detailed here:

- a) Reviewing the scope and work breakdown structure and identifying the resources that are critical to the successful implementation of the measure. Critical resources are those which are vital to the success of the measure and may include staff with special skills, consultants, a co-located office venue, ICT equipment, transportation, data/information systems etc.
- b) Determining whether the resource is available internally and if so outlining a strategy to manage or acquire it for the required duration.
- c) If a critical resource is unavailable internally, determining whether it is available through other Government agencies and if so outlining a strategy to manage or acquire it for the required duration.
- d) If it is necessary to purchase a resource externally, this should be identified in the contracting and procurement section on the implementation plan. A business case may need to be prepared to justify the procurement strategy;
- e) Outlining the scope of the actual resource requirement including an initial cost estimate and linking to deliverable(s) and risk management plan.
- f) Summarizing the information in a resource management strategy, linking to high level policy outputs. Identifying and assessing availability and quality of critical resources is an important activity.

- g) Where appropriate, ensuring resource issues are reflected in relevant sections of the Plan such as risk management, contracting and procurement, quality assurance, work breakdown and funding.

Example of a Resource Management Strategy

Critical resource	Critical to: (Activity/Phase Deliverable)	Strategy to Manage/ Acquire Critical Resource	Duration (days or dates)	Estimated cost

Procurement Plan

This section of the Implementation Plan will only be necessary for projects where there is substantial buy in of expertise or capital items. Projects that do not involve a high level of procurement expenditure should simply indicate that this requirement is not applicable.

The Procurement Plan should document:

- Policy deliverables to be procured by proposed agreement or contract etc.;
- Strategies for negotiating and managing agreements/contracts;
- Need for staged delivery and desirability of testing the deliverables;
- Whether a purchase-provider arrangement is being considered and if so:
 - timings for release of documentation to the public, tender and contract finalization, contract period;
 - the procurement method (specific purpose payments, expressions of interest, request for price/quote, request for tender);
 - the funding model (i.e. milestone payments);
 - supplier selection processes such as tender evaluation, contract negotiation and tender evaluation criteria; and
 - arrangements for ongoing contract management including review and evaluation.
- Probity issues should be covered in the Quality Assurance section.
- Where appropriate, the procurement plan could be linked to risk management, resources, quality assurance and stakeholder engagement sections.

25.5.10 Risk Management

The risk management section is one of the most important parts of an implementation plan. By understanding the potential risks which may affect the implementation of a policy measure, agencies can reduce the likelihood of adverse consequences that may jeopardize the achievement of policy objectives. Risks may arise as a consequence of:

- changing circumstances and new developments;
- further refinement of project planning;
- changes to the scope of the project; and
- discussions/negotiations with the client/stakeholder.

The design and implementation of the risk management plan will be influenced by the objectives of the policy and the governance arrangements within each agency. Although most agencies undertake risk management exercises associated with policy implementation, there are differing levels of rigour with which agencies undertake, oversight and document risk assessment and associated strategies to manage risk.

To be effective, risk management needs to be an ongoing and meaningful element in the management of the plan. The plan needs to do more than a 'tick and flick' exercise at the commencement of the project; it needs to identify who is responsible for reviewing risks on a regular basis and how this will be done.

Agencies should ensure that risks which would have an impact on achieving the desired policy outcome and successfully implementing the project should be identified separately. This links back to the two elements of success to be evaluated in the plan, viz. the success of the implementation process and the success of the overall measure in terms of the outcomes or impacts aimed for.

Most agencies or governments have their own risk management framework in place with associated templates. Where this is the case, these templates should be used for this section of the Plan.

Regularly review risk assessment

It is important to ensure risk management plans remain current and become a regular aspect of the performance reporting and review of a project, with responsibility for particular risk mitigation activities assigned to individuals who are accountable to the programme or project owner. Throughout the course of implementation, risk identification should continue to occur to take account of changing circumstances so that the risk plan should identify who is responsible for its maintenance and at what points it will be reviewed. For example, risks should be reviewed prior to the release of tender documentation, prior to formal approval to proceed to implementation and in conjunction with periodic reporting.

Note for cross-portfolio measures

The particular risks associated with multiple agency involvement should be reflected in the risk management strategy.

25.5.11 Stakeholder Management

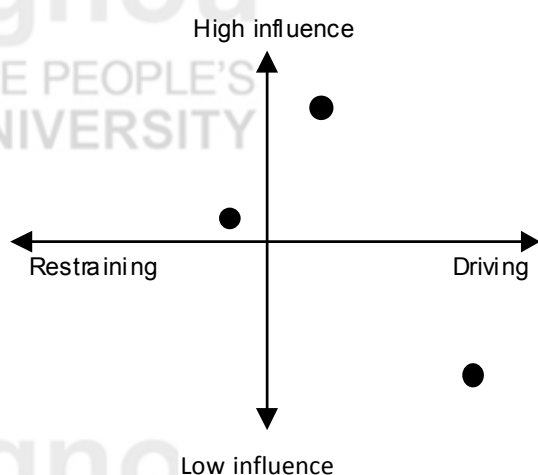
The Stakeholder Engagement Strategy addresses the often vital role of engaging, informing and managing stakeholders in the achievement of public policy. It seeks to ensure that key stakeholders and their interests are identified and strategies are developed to engage them.

Where a stakeholder strategy includes a major communications campaign this should be reflected in the scope and work breakdown structure of the implementation plan. Stakeholders who must be consulted in order to ensure the effective implementation and delivery of policy measures include, among others, those with prime carriage of implementation and delivery such as the delivery arms of portfolio agencies or private sector organizations where purchaser-provider arrangements are planned.

There are two key steps in developing a Stakeholder Engagement Plan.

Step 1 – Identify Key Stakeholders and Their Views

Identify the people and organizations that may be able to significantly influence the policy objective or success of any of the phases of the measure. Analyze the positions (including values and expectations) of key stakeholders. The planner may wish to use a diagram illustrated as follows to plot stakeholders by their level of influence and support for the measure.



Source: *Guide to preparing implementation plans by Department of Prime Minister and Cabinet, Australian Government.*

Step 2 – Develop Strategies for Engaging Stakeholders

The next step is to develop strategies for engaging, informing and managing key stakeholders.

The purpose of communicating with each stakeholder should be considered. Some purposes include:

- building rapport;
- conveying intentions;
- asking for feedback/input;
- providing them with information;
- building credibility;
- understanding their perspective; and
- Seeking buy-in.

While engaging with stakeholders, it is important to focus on the following issues:

- a) What commitment/input do the planners want from stakeholders and what messages do they need to impart to them?
- b) What nature and level of contact is necessary? Indirect and direct contact may be considered. If the latter is chosen, at what bureaucratic level is contact most appropriate? Would the measure benefit from a communication campaign? What tools and/or communications activities (ie, newsletter, website, public forums and briefings) should be used?

The strategy should make clear the intent and logic of consultation with key stakeholders. These should, of course, support the achievement of policy objectives as stated in the scope statement and be adequately costed in the work breakdown structure.

Most agencies have their own stakeholder management and communications framework in place with associated templates. Where this is the case, these templates should be used for this section of the Implementation Plan. For those agencies without an existing framework, the planner may wish to use some variant of the plan as illustrated in the following chart.

Example of a Stakeholder Management Strategy

Stakeholders	Their views on the Policy	Planners' Strengths in Managing these Views	The Planners' Vulnerabilities with reference to these Views

25.5.12 Quality Assurance

Quality assurance means assuring the integrity and probity of all processes undertaken to implement the policy on time and within budget. It also involves monitoring progress against milestones and within budget. Some important steps include:

- Listing deliverables involving significant quality assurance processes such as management of contracts, statutory reporting requirements, regulatory/legal/professional standards, performance/achievement indicator development, survey design, research methodology and technical specifications;
- Where appropriate, linking to agency-based audit, probity and risk management resources, chief executive instructions, relevant legislation and mandated standards;
- Where appropriate, identifying external quality assurance processes that may assist or which are mandatory, such as internal or external gateway review processes;
- Including a description of who will be responsible for ensuring the quality of particular deliverables, including management of risk; and
- Ensuring links with other sections of the Plan, where appropriate, such as resources, contracting and procurement, scope (governance) and funding.

25.6 IMPLEMENTING PLANS AT CENTRE, STATE AND LOCAL LEVELS

Implementation is the carrying out, execution or practice of a plan, a method or any design for doing something. As such, implementation is the action that must follow any preliminary thinking in order for something to actually happen.

One of the most challenging aspects of planning is implementing the plan – “getting what’s on paper to come to life” and achieving the goals and strategies included in the plan. Work for successful implementation of a plan needs to begin when work on the plan begins and continue through the implementation.

Implementation refers to the carrying out of public policy. Legislatures pass laws that are then carried out by public servants working in bureaucratic agencies. This process consists of rule-making, rule-administration and rule-adjudication. Factors impacting implementation include the legislative intent, the administrative capacity of the implementing bureaucracy, interest group activity and opposition and presidential or executive support. So in order to fulfill the needs of the people, the legislative, executive and judiciary were formulating, implementing and monitoring the plans at centre, state and local level.

Check Your Progress Exercise 1

Note: i) Use this space given below to answer the question.

ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit.

1) What are the essential factors for successful programme implementation?

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25.7 NETWORKING AND CONVERGENCE

Networks and convergence with NGOs, National and International bodies have a vital and creative role in deepening the engagement of all participants at the local level – making globalization inclusive locally. It is a process that facilitates different functionaries and the community in working together for efficient service delivery. It helps in:

- Time saving;
- Building rapport;
- Increasing efficiency;
- Reducing workload;
- Sharing of ideas; and
- Building trustworthiness.

Significance of Networks and Convergence in Implementing Programmes

Some of the critical areas in which networks and convergence provide advantages include:

- Vertical nature of programmes;
- Ensuring unity of purpose;
- Providing directionality;
- Promoting team work;
- Avoiding duplication and wastage;
- Improving quality of work;
- Economizing on effort;
- Promoting commitment;
- Enhancing participation; and
- Optimizing output.

25.8 ROLE OF NATIONAL/INTERNATIONAL BODIES, PARASTATALS, NGOs IN IMPLEMENTING PLANS TOWARDS SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Sustainable development is “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs”.

Sustainable Development generally includes three aspects:

- Environment;
- Society; and
- Economy.

Sustainability means equitable balance in environmental, societal and economic considerations in the pursuit of development and improved quality of life. The components of Sustainable Development are closely linked to attainment of Millennium Development Goals. A closer look at the ideals and principles underlying development sustainability are as follows: Intergenerational equity; gender equity and peaceable societies; social tolerance; environmental protection and preservation; poverty alleviation and natural resource conservation and economic development. Sustainable development provides focus and agenda for a pattern of development strategy embracing all facets of national or community life and for everyone's quest for improved quality of life. In order to implement sustainable development the government has to work with CBOs, NGOs, parastatal organizations, National and International agencies towards implementing welfare policies and programmes for the welfare of the people.

Role of International Agencies

International agencies are organs of the international organization (UN) involved in the promotion of global activities or actions. In the case of managing sustainable development internationally, the following organizations are recognized as active participants:

- The World Bank;
- UNESCO (United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization);
- UNICEF (United Nations Children's Fund); and
- WHO (World Health Organization)

All the listed agencies are organs of the United Nations through which its policies and programmes are realized.

Role of NGOs/CBOs for Sustainable Development

Non-Governmental Organizations are civil society organizations. The World Bank defines NGOs as: Private organizations that pursue activities to relieve suffering, promote the interest of the poor, protect the environment, provide basic social services or undertake community development. The NGOs are private, voluntary, non-profit organizations that are established by some members of civil society. Some NGOs are international such as Rotary Club and the Red Cross Society. Others are national. They are usually concerned with service delivery, capacity building and people's participation.

Community-based Organizations are also civil society organizations. They are active participants in the development process. They are the grassroots organizations

mainly concerned with mobilizing community resources for infrastructural development such as potable water, electricity, roads, markets, schools and health centres. Taken together, the NGOs and CBOs are civil society organizations mainly concerned with development delivery to the grassroots of given targets. Hence, International Agencies have led the way in policy plans and programmes, funding, facilities and other logistic support for the realization of this goal, which is crucial to the achievement of MDGs. While the international agencies play their managerial roles, the local or national civil society organizations also have their roles to play in managing sustainable development by planning and implementing programmes.

Role of Parastatal organizations

Parasatatal organizations are owned or controlled wholly or partly by the government. A quasi-governmental organization, corporation, business or agency (parastatal) is an entity that is treated by national laws and regulations to be under the guidance of the government, but also separate and autonomous from the government. While the entity may receive some revenue from charging customers for its services, these organizations are often partially or majorly funded by the government. They are usually considered highly important to smooth running of society and are sometimes propped up with cash infusions in times of crisis to help surmount situations that would render a privately-owned business bankrupt. They may also possess law-enforcement authority, usually related to their functions.

Check Your Progress Exercise 2

Note: i) Use this space given below to answer the question.

ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit.

1) How do networks and convergence give effective service delivery?

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25.9 SUMMING UP

This Unit helped you to understand the process in implementing plans at centre, state and local government and the role of International and national NGOs and CBOs in those processes. It also briefly explored the machineries of the central government in formulating, implementing and monitoring plans.

25.10 GLOSSARY

Implementation : After planning a programme or plan, it will be executed by dividing and sharing the work responsibilities between the persons involved and by using *inputs, infrastructure and services* to achieve the goals or objectives of the programme or plan.

Networks : Coordination or integration of organizations or people in order to share their experiences and finding solutions to their problems in achieving a common goal.

Non-governmental Organizations : NGOs are private organizations that pursue activities to relieve suffering, promote the interest of the poor, protect the environment, provide basic social services or undertake community development.

Community-based Organizations : CBOs are civil society organizations which will have people in the local area as their members. They serve to fulfill the basic needs of people such as water, food, electricity, schooling, health etc.

25.11 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS EXERCISES

Check Your Progress Exercise 1

- 1) Adequate formulation; Sound project organization; Proper implementation planning; Advance action; Timely availability of funds; Better management; and Effective control and monitoring of the progress of the project or programme.

Check Your Progress Exercise 2

- 1) Time saving; Building rapport; Increasing efficiency; Reducing workload; Sharing of ideas; and Building trustworthiness.

25.12 REFERENCES

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25.13 QUESTIONS FOR REFLECTION AND PRACTICE

- 1) Describe the general principles of implementing a plan.
- 2) What are the different steps in implementing a project or plan?
- 3) Critically evaluate the role of national NGOs and international organizations in implementing plans.
- 4) Suggest ways and means to improve networks and convergence with other sectors while implementing plans.
- 5) Trace the activities of the planning machinery at central government level in planning, implementing and monitoring programmes.

UNIT 26 NEW INITIATIVES AND BEST PRACTICES: SELECTED CASE STUDIES

New Initiatives and Best Practices: Selected Case Studies

Structure

- 26.1 Introduction
- 26.2 Objectives
- 26.3 Case 1: Water Provision in Malawi
- 26.4 Case 2: Union de Vecinos, Los Angeles, USA
- 26.5 Case 3: Frauen-Werk-Stadt – A Housing Project by and for Women in Vienna, Austria
- 26.6 Case 4: Mother Centre International Network/AG International, Germany
- 26.7 Case 5: Women's Community Environmental Report Cards, Netherlands
- 26.8 Case 6: Social and Financial Empowerment of Poor Women in Chennai, India
- 26.9 Case 7: Women's Empowerment Programme, Nepal
- 26.10 Case 8: Integrating a Gender Perspective into Public Transit, Montreal, Canada
- 26.11 Case 9: Community Recycling of Domestic Waste by Women, Dakar, Senegal
- 26.12 Case 10: Women's Contribution in Sustainable Rural Development, Deir El Ahmar, Lebanon
- 26.13 Case 11: Community-based Women-oriented Initiative to Fight Poverty, Kerala, India
- 26.14 Case 12: Community Watch against Domestic and Gender Violence, Cebu City, Philippines
- 26.15 Case 13: Launch and Development of Cordoba, Spain
- 26.16 Case 14: Gender and Citizenship within an Integrated Programme for Social Inclusion, Santo Andre, Brazil
- 26.17 Case 15: Paper Recycling Project (PRP), Cairo, Egypt
- 26.18 Case 16: Buses for Women Only in Bangkok, Thailand
- 26.19 Case 17: Poverty Reduction among Women through Vocational Training and Micro-financing Programme, Uzbekistan
- 26.20 Case 18: São Paulo Social Inclusion Strategy, Brazil
- 26.21 Lessons Learned from the Case Studies
- 26.22 Summing Up
- 26.23 Glossary
- 26.24 Answers to Check Your Progress Exercises
- 26.25 References
- 26.26 Questions for Reflection and Practice

26.1 INTRODUCTION

Women constitute one half of the world's population and a visible majority of the poor. Women either solely or largely support an increasing number of families.

Projects aiming to improve the living conditions of the poor cannot, therefore, be effective unless women participate in their formulation and implementation, as contributors as well as beneficiaries.

Although women are the main providers of basic services in poor settlements, their key role remains largely unrecognized. They are subject to special constraints in obtaining adequate housing and in participating in human settlement development efforts at all levels. Equitable distribution of development benefits is a fundamental principle. Hence, there is a need to remove these constraints.

26.2 OBJECTIVES

After studying this Unit, you should be able to:

- describe the selected case studies and their implications for planning and policy initiatives focusing on gender and development;
- explain the best practices of women leaders across the world; and
- examine the case studies and describe strategies and initiatives taken towards gender equality.

26.3 CASE 1: WATER PROVISION IN MALAWI

In Malawi, a national programme to provide piped water to peri-urban communities was not meeting the needs of most families. The male-dominated water tap committees (80-90% of members were men) were not performing satisfactorily, mainly because the majority of the men were absent from the neighbourhoods during most of the day. Lack of participatory decision making involving women during the planning phase resulted in poor location, inconvenient design and subsequent wrong use of the water points. A training programme for women was introduced and succeeded in raising the percentage of women in tap committees from 20% to over 90%. Women gained self-confidence and became effective managers of the communal water points, including their operation and maintenance.

26.4 CASE 2: UNION DE VECINOS, LOS ANGELES, USA

When the City of Los Angeles threatened to demolish their homes in 1996, women from two of the poorest housing estates in Los Angeles organized Union de Vecinos. Union de Vecinos was considered both a tool and a place of transformation. It encouraged and supported those women in mobilizing their neighbours to take control of their livelihoods, and it offered them a space to tell their stories. As mothers, wives and workers, they created a place where they could educate each other, build social and economic alternatives, become empowered to combat threats to their communities.

Union de Vecinos had been successful in expanding its impact to four other housing projects. It trained 12 residents as community organizers. It also produced a bi-lingual newsletter for its Black and Latino constituency. It has given a voice to poor, immigrant women. And, most importantly, it has succeeded in imposing a moratorium on the demolition of low-income housing in Los Angeles.

Principal achievements

The major initiatives of the initiative include:

- Giving an effective voice to low-income immigrant women and encouraging them to take control of their own housing and neighbourhoods;

- Promoting social inclusion and the empowerment of poor women and their families, affording them leadership roles in their country of adoption;
- Establishing an array of local, national and international partnerships in further strengthening the sustainability of the Union's activities;
- Providing an instrument for other low-income neighbourhoods in other inner cities and in other countries where public authorities adopt demolition of housing estates as a "quick and dirty fix" to underlying problems of social exclusion and poverty; and
- Promoting a change of policy of the city of Los Angeles.

26.5 CASE 3: FRAUEN-WERK-STADT – A HOUSING PROJECT BY AND FOR WOMEN IN VIENNA, AUSTRIA

In the tradition of European urban development, it was almost exclusively men who designed and constructed cities be they planners, architects, building owners and contractors. In this way, the everyday experience of working men was almost invariably the only source of expression in the design and structure of cities.

Women made up 52% of the Viennese population, yet their role in everyday life was largely ignored. The housing project "Frauen-Werk-Stadt" was started in 1993, as a first step to implement the everyday experience and requirements of women in the development of the city. In this regard a section of the city was being designed exclusively by women architects and planners as part of the urban expansion programme in Vienna.

Special attention was given to the flat layouts and space allocation for individual rooms. The intention was to have a number of even sized rooms, which do not force tenants to adopt pre-determined space utilization. 359 housing units were constructed in the form of subsidized, multi-storey development. The housing project had several infrastructural facilities including a kindergarten and a day-care nursery, a doctor's office, a communication centre, a police station and 600 sq. m. for shops.

An increasing number of female experts were constantly being invited to attend urban planning evaluations and several were able to prove their competencies. Before the inception of the "Frauen-Werk-Stadt", only a handful of women took part in such evaluations.

26.6 CASE 4: MOTHER CENTRE INTERNATIONAL NETWORK/AG INTERNATIONAL, GERMANY

The Mother Centres International Network is the result of a grassroots women's movement that started in Germany as a consequence of a research project at the German Youth Institute in Munich. Following the economic transition and war that was occurring in many countries in Central and Eastern Europe, the role of civil society has been systematically dismantled and family and neighbourhood networks destroyed. Unemployment, war trauma and unprecedented poverty often led to disorientation and retreat into depression and apathy.

Mother centres were created to address the needs of women and children and recreate family and neighborhood structures in the community where modernization in the West and totalitarian systems and war in the East have destroyed them. They empower mothers and create new channels for female participation and

leadership in communities and local governance. They are an innovative model on how to strengthen civil society and democracy by revitalizing neighbourhoods and community culture. They are melting pots in the community for women of diverse class and ethnic backgrounds to meet and join forces to deal with everyday life issues, to create community services and to rechannel resources to the grassroots level. Mother centres are consulted regularly by municipal agencies as well as by local, regional and national governments. They advocate on gender and family issues and have had impact on national legislation and urban planning.

The first three model Mother Centres were funded by the German Government Department for Family Affairs. Following the transition in Central and Eastern Europe, Mother Centres were created from the bottom-up as self help initiatives in the Czech and Slovak Republics, in Bulgaria, Russia, Georgia and Bosnia Herzegovina. There are now some 700 mother centres world wide, including Africa and North America. The centres operate as a switchboard for information, skills, support and resources for everyday life and survival issues. Depending on their size and how long they have been working, mother centres reach between 50 and 500 families in their neighbourhood and have proven to be successful with training and job re-entry programmes as well as creating new businesses and income generating opportunities.

This practice demonstrates the importance of gender issues for the Habitat Agenda. It also highlights gender concerns as conditional elements in the strengthening of communities and neighbourhoods that, in turn, are necessary in improving the quality of the living environment.

26.7 CASE 5: WOMEN'S COMMUNITY ENVIRONMENTAL REPORT CARDS, NETHERLANDS

Women's Community Environmental Report Cards encourage women to review their living environment and exert influence in promoting sustainable development. Based on the international format of the Environmental Report Cards, a Dutch questionnaire was developed.

This project makes women more conscious of their role as consumers and citizens. Women's organizations gain experience in formulating women's interests and in getting public support for them. Policy-makers learn to take women's interests into consideration. During the experimental year 1995, twenty local groups in four Dutch provinces were involved, supported by local organizations and the National Steering Group. The number increased and environmental report cards served as a barometer in assessing the effect of various multi-sectoral management and remedial actions.

26.8 CASE 6: SOCIAL AND FINANCIAL EMPOWERMENT OF POOR WOMEN IN CHENNAI, INDIA

Chennai (formerly Madras) is the capital of the Indian state of Tamil Nadu. In 1977, floods and other natural disasters had terrible effects on the poorest of the poor in Chennai, especially women. The Working Women's Forum (WWF) an NGO, was founded in 1978 to respond to needs of heavily indebted women, whose labour was cheap and disposable as they were not organized. Low cost and accessible credit was identified for effective relief from poverty, hunger, indebtedness and strengthening their productive role.

Initially, WWF acted as an intermediary between national banks and its members to facilitate their access to credit. Frustrated with the formal banking system which did not address their needs, 2500 members of WWF, with the help of external donors, created the Working Women's Cooperative Society (WWCS) in 1981. The most important challenge was to identify and train a cadre of catalysts within each neighbourhood. It was also difficult to convince men that the programme should focus only on women. By 1982-83, however, group leaders managed to take control and the programme rapidly grew into a mass socio-economic movement. It evolved into an emancipation movement for poor women with various partners joining the initiative including the Government of India and UNFPA. Out of an initial seed capital of Rs. 50,000, WWF has grown into the largest credit cooperative network with a recovery rate of 97% and a cumulative disbursement of 396 million rupees equivalent of US\$ 8.8 million.

Many members have moved from trading and vending occupations to skilled and manufacturing business. 76 percent have been relieved from their indebtedness, 92 per cent are now able to afford two meals a day while 80 per cent have improved their housing. By raising awareness on health issues, WWF has also created a voice and a demand for improved delivery of health services. WWF/ICNW (Credit institution of WWF) is 80% operationally self-sufficient and 75% financially self-sufficient.

26.9 CASE 7: WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT PROGRAMME, NEPAL

An estimated seventy percent of Nepali families are below the poverty line. Male dominated cultural traditions discourage female education, restrict their legal rights and participation in decision-making, and permit women little control over their lives. Females are often malnourished or in poor health. Only 20% of them are literate. The Women's Empowerment Programme (WEP) initiated in 1998 was founded on the principle that dependency is not empowering. It works to empower women through an innovative programme integrating literacy, micro-finance and micro-enterprise training and an understanding of legal rights and advocacy.

WEP however offers no seed money, matching grants or subsidized interest rates. Women must own the programme by creating their own group policies, paying fees, buying books, providing facilities and supplies, and finding literacy volunteers. WEP assumes that the poor will pay for the services they need. It requires all members to be literate, understand the banking process and know how to form and operate a business. As a result, women in-kind contributions are estimated at \$260,000 so far. 240 NGOs work as partners for implementation. WEP also encourages financial independence and for every ten WEP groups they work with, the NGO receives less than \$5 for administration. As a result, in-kind contributions from supporting NGOs are estimated at \$100,000 to date. The programme uses an approach based on Appreciative Planning and Action (APA) that was developed in Nepal and encourages women to build on their strengths and has been key to overcoming obstacles. This approach teaches an organization to learn and implement a major programme in a transparent and accountable manner, to adopt low-cost methods to promote literacy and economic participation in order to reduce dependence on external funding. In summary, the programme instils a sense of self-reliance.

Overall, the programme shows that women can teach themselves the skills they need to improve their lives, to save money and start small businesses. Programmes based on this model can engage millions of women everywhere at costs they can afford. The no handout policy inspires motivation, pride and commitment in a programme integrating literacy, economic and legal components. Simplified books

developed by partner NGOs enable newly literate women to teach each other basic skills. Within a few months they start putting them to use in ways to ensure skill retention. The Programme reaches 123,000 women in nearly 7,000 economic groups in Southern Nepal.

Source: Women's Empowerment Programme, Nepal, 1998.

Check Your Progress Exercise 1

Note: i) Use this space given below to answer the question.

ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit.

- 1) What are the lessons you have learnt from the women's empowerment programme in Nepal?

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26.10 CASE 8: INTEGRATING A GENDER PERSPECTIVE INTO PUBLIC TRANSIT, MONTREAL, CANADA

The fear of violence reduces night use of public transportation by women in Montreal. Yet, a simple change of practice can drastically improve their mobility – “Between Two Stops” service, which allows women to get off the bus, at night, at a location closer to their destination. Since 1992, the Comité d'Action Femmes et Sécurité Urbaine (CAFSU) has been actively promoting ways to increase women's sense of security in and access to the urban environment. Because women are the principal users of public transportation, this programme generates an increase in ridership as well as more security for all other users. Partnership of CAFSU with public authorities was the key to the project's success. Beyond allowing for increased mobility, the “Between Two Stops” service also confirmed that local authorities can make concrete contributions to support women towards autonomy and equality, when they recognize women as the main recipients of their services. The project started in 1996 and has since been replicated in the Montreal, Toronto and Laval municipalities across Canada.

The programme managed to establish strategic partnerships between local authorities, women's organizations and girls and women utilizing public transportation. Success was achieved by recognizing the specific needs of women in the overall allocation of public resources and creating a low-cost strategic policy that transformed the economic and social lives of women. The service was also the subject of growing interest in other Quebec municipalities. The networks of women's groups involved in local and regional development helped to publicize the service as well. On an international scale, the service is also being promoted through the “Women in City” programme as part of its international activities. It also serves as an example of a successful strategic partnership between women's groups and local authorities, particularly in the context of the United Nations' Habitat agenda implementation process.

26.11 CASE 9: COMMUNITY RECYCLING OF DOMESTIC WASTE BY WOMEN, DAKAR, SENEGAL

Before the initiative began, the Municipal services in the Set-Setal settlement in Dakar could only collect 35% of the 263 cubic metres of waste produced per day, while 51% of households had no toilet facilities and 76% had no convenient systems to process used waste-water which was consequently poured onto the streets. Unemployment rate for men was 28.6% and 24.1% for women. The settlement had a prevalence of infectious diseases such as typhoid and malaria. Women in the community embarked on a waste management programme.

The results of their efforts included:

- a regular collection of the waste, and eradication of anarchic dumps thus improving the sanitary and health status of the beneficiaries;
- generation of income from supplementary activities like waste collection, sale of compost, vegetables and recycled plastic objects;
- covering the recurrent costs with the financial contribution of the member households. Additional financial sources included a well managed revolving funds scheme, savings banks and credit totally managed by women leading to better co-ordination amongst the different parties and a greater trust in women from the quarters. The projects translated into municipal savings as the latter did not incur any expenses related to waste management;
- reinforcement of the managerial capacities and strategic approach of the women through training and exchange visits that allowed them to manage the initiative at all levels;
- alleviation of the family charges through the employment of jobless youth mostly from female-headed households; and
- Transference of the project to other parts of the country and visits by the Association of elected Women of Burkina Faso (AFEB). The project was disseminated during the USAID International Seminar on the Study of Impact on the Environment, etc.

26.12 CASE 10: WOMEN'S CONTRIBUTION IN SUSTAINABLE RURAL DEVELOPMENT, DEIR EL AHMAR, LEBANON

Deir El Ahmar, is part of the Bekaa Valley in Lebanon. People in this area face myriad economic hardships where per capita income is US\$ 50 per month and the immigration level is very high. In 1991, a group of women voluntarily got together to establish an NGO (WADA) aiming at sustainable rural development, through economic, financial and political empowerment. The objectives of the NGO included building the capacity of rural women to launch awareness programmes in environmental management, healthcare and eco-tourism. The municipality provided them with 1.5 hectares of fertile land.

WADA accomplished about 70% of its objectives for the "Rural Development Centre", which included playgrounds, theatres, day-care centre, capacity training and production centre for women, multi-purpose hall, and a local library. The programmes went a long way in building women's capacity to respond to day-to-day challenges. Agro-food products were cultivated and handcraft business started.

Their products are sold locally as well as exported (total sales in 2001 were US\$ 50,000). Educational and training programmes had been conducted for women in the areas of health care, environmental protection and tourism promotion.

WADA collaborated with organizations representing various sectors of the community to help solve pressing problems. The NGO worked with Creative Associates (USAID), Union Cities, CBOs, school representatives and the municipality. WADA was also a member of the “Lebanese Women’s Council” whose basic principle was to advocate gender equality and raise legal awareness on women’s rights.

This Lebanese initiative is a flagship, where women got together voluntarily to promote sustainable rural development by focusing on economic, social and political empowerment. WADA has greatly and effectively contributed to the “after 20 years of armed conflict programme” and they have formed partnerships involving local authorities, civil society, private sector and international organizations.

26.13 CASE 11: COMMUNITY-BASED, WOMEN-ORIENTED INITIATIVE TO FIGHT POVERTY, KERALA, INDIA

Kerala is a small state, tucked away in the southwest corner of India. A quarter of the population resides in urban centres with a 91% overall literacy rate. Initially, manifestations of poverty were visible in varying intensity in all the 58 urban local bodies of Kerala, despite implementation of several poverty reduction programmes by the Government, owing to the ‘top-down’ planning approach adopted. The ‘Community Development Societies’ (CDS) structure flourishing in the state of Kerala, India is an innovative community-based, women-oriented initiative to fight poverty. All urban-based poverty reduction programmes are now implemented through a tripartite ‘Community-Based Organizations’ (CBOs) structure. This unique and innovative system that evolved as a result of decentralized planning has already gained international recognition as a highly effective participatory system to do away with the manifestations of urban poverty.

The urban CDS system of Kerala offers poor urban women an open forum to express their anguish, anxieties, aspirations, developmental needs and priorities. After identifying and prioritizing these developmental needs, the poor women formulated and implemented poverty reduction action plans. Identification and analysis of poverty instances using ‘non-economic risk indices’, economic and social empowerment of poor women and their families through promotion of micro-enterprises, education and cultural vitality get priority in the CDS structure, derived from the Kudumbashree Mission (the State Poverty Eradication Mission).

Within a short span of three years, the Kudumbashree Mission has brought about a sea change in the lives of the urban poor of Kerala by converging resources, ideas and programmes of various departments through the CDS system. 169,000 poor urban women of the State have been organized into 7,848 grassroot level self-help groups. Among other laudable achievements include mobilization of savings and informal banking which has resulted in the disbursement of US \$ 1.18 million among members with a 100% repayment rate. The CDS structure has hitherto given birth to 12,991 vibrant micro enterprises, with 20,000 women owners. The urban CDSs of Kerala run remedial education centres to help out poor students in preparation for public examinations. Remedial Education Centres of the CDS structure act as ‘double-edged swords’ to fight poverty as they not only enhance the educational standard of the students belonging to families but also give gainful employment to educated poor women. Community Based Organizations have mobilized their members and partners to construct 21,987 houses and 20,049 toilets

for the urban poor.

Check Your Progress Exercise 2

Note: i) Use this space given below to answer the question.

ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit.

1) What did you learn from the Kudumbashree Programme?

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26.14 CASE 12: COMMUNITY WATCH AGAINST DOMESTIC AND GENDER VIOLENCE, CEBU CITY, PHILIPPINES

Cebu City is the regional capital of Central Visayas and lies at the heart of the Philippine archipelago, 568 kilometres south of Manila. The Bantay Banay concept or “Family/Community Watch Group Against Domestic and Gender Violence” was conceived in January 31, 1992 in Cebu City by participants to a Forum where it was revealed that 60 % of the women were battered by their spouses. The initial approach was to involve the community members in order to respond to and reduce cases of domestic violence. The group members, who included lawyers, regularly met to share experiences and review their objectives and activities. Victims who later become members were afforded temporary shelter, food, medical care and legal assistance. Community members received training on gender issues, applicable laws and legal process, crisis intervention and mediation and were involved in networking and advocacy with government agencies, administration, sponsors and policy makers. This was instrumental in ensuring success of the programme. A survey on domestic violence was conducted and results presented to an interagency council for urban basic services (UNICEF sponsored). Members of the council created a task force that was later named Bantay Banay. The task force negotiated with the city hospital for free laboratory services to victims during medico-legal check up. The group approached the mayor for funds to train police personnel on gender sensitivity while the City Health Department was involved in training women on health issues.

Intervention programmes included isolating victims from an abusive environment, affording them medical, legal and economic support to get back on their feet. The Bantay Banay programme has been replicated in 60 cities and municipalities throughout the Philippines. Many of the member groups were financially sponsored to build their capacity to respond to such cases. Direct response to victims is the responsibility of these partner agencies. In Cebu city alone, 50 out of 80 barangays (wards) have their own Bantay Banay volunteers who respond to cases and refer them to appropriate authorities. The Bantay Banay council has succeeded in lobbying for retention of the Gender Development Budget allocation by the municipality. The group has also been instrumental in lobbying for enactment/revision of the anti-rape law, sexual harassment law and pro-women laws.

The overall group activities involve an estimated 1,500 community volunteers in Cebu City and Bantay Banay. On an average 2,000 cases have been handled annually by the group’s network. Women’s rights as human rights are recognized and a ‘Gender and Development code’ has been passed providing for protection of

women victims of violence in the Philippines. The most important lessons from this programme are that good governance results from the interplay of many actors.

26.15 CASE 13: LAUNCH AND DEVELOPMENT OF CORDOBA, SPAIN

Prior to 1999, an Equality Plan implemented by the Provincial Women's Centre in Cordoba was not inclusive in nature and did not have the intended impact. With the transfer of some of the staff and responsibilities to the Cordoba's Women's Institute under the auspices of the Andalusian Regional Government, the remaining duties were taken up by the Department of Women of the Cordoba Provincial Council.

The Gender Committee developed the first inclusive gender plan "Equal Opportunities Plan" 2000-2003. The aim of the plan was to create employment opportunities and mutual support networks to foster exchange of experiences related to gender mainstreaming and equal opportunities for women and men. Active lobbying was done to keep politicians and technical staff of all departments informed on the development of the action plan and related activities. The strategy that was applied was to prioritize gender training among the staff of institutions linked to the Provincial Council. The Gender Plan was adopted by the provincial administration in Cordoba, which prevailed on all other departments to make financial contributions every year and appoint one staff member to sit on the Gender Committee.

In March 2000, a sensitization campaign dubbed "Route for Equality" was organized to build awareness on the Equal Opportunities Plan and to provide community members an opportunity to make comments and as a result 75 specific action plans were drawn up. A training programme for unemployed women was initiated to enhance their chances of securing job opportunities. 45 women have so far benefited from this scheme which came complete with free transportation to attend training courses and childcare for their children while they were in class.

This initiative successfully incorporated the gender perspective into provincial and local Agenda 21 environment programmes in the province of Cordoba. The Plan has been successful in incorporating a fixed gender clause when drafting all agreements to be signed by the Provincial Council with public and private organizations. A vast number of organizations have been involved in the project and included 75 municipal councils in the Province of Cordoba, the Provincial Economic Development Consortium, various women's associations, financial institutions and the private sector.

26.16 CASE 14: GENDER AND CITIZENSHIP WITHIN AN INTEGRATED PROGRAMME FOR SOCIAL INCLUSION, SANTO ANDRE, BRAZIL

Santo Andre, is part of the Sao Paulo Metropolitan Area and one of the largest mega-cities of the region. Developed as a centre for industrial production some decades ago, Santo Andre has been dealing with a large crisis, generated by the crash and substitution of its original economic model. As a result, the living conditions for the majority of the population deteriorated and a number of favelas, areas of extreme poverty, have sprung up in the city. The municipality promoted an Integrated Programme of Social Inclusion as a strategy to alleviate poverty. The Integrated Programme of Social Inclusion, which was a pilot programme, had as its purpose the establishment of new ways of managing local public policies

addressing social inclusion. The programme addressed decentralization and participatory management and comprised projects spearheaded by the Municipal Administration. Four priority groups were chosen to develop the Integrated Programme (PIIS) as a pilot project. The four slums were: Sacadura Cabral, Tamarutaca, Capuava, and Quilombo II. Their resident population is 16,042 (50.72% male and 49.28% female) with half the population being unemployed/underemployed. 57.6% of the households were female-headed, many of whom earned less than the minimum wage.

These areas were characterized by poor infrastructure, lack of access to basic services, and exposure of children and adolescents to crime. The objective of the initiative was to integrate community participation in the local management actions of social policies, giving the slum population an opportunity to develop social inclusion strategies through integrated actions. Both the partner organizations and community agents participated directly in the PIIS management tiers. In the case of urbanization, for example, the entire process was decided step by step, with the residents of these low-income neighbourhoods, collectively determining issues ranging from project schedules to naming of streets. The emergence and strengthening of community leaders has been demonstrated by greater participation by these communities in the city's debate and decision-making forums, highlighting that the choices made by the community representatives had taken the gender perspective into account. The project had seen the improvement of basic services in some of the worst regions in the area. Micro-credit facilities have been made available to small-scale entrepreneurs while health care has been more accessible from community health agents appointed to provide medical attention within neighbourhoods. Recreational facilities have also been made available while open spaces have been designated as playing grounds. An index that is used to measure social exclusion/social inclusion has been elaborated and data collection is done on a regular basis.

The Gender and Citizenship Programme proposes to foster male/female awareness by promoting institutional arrangements that help reduce conflicts, working simultaneously with the community and programme teams. The Gender and Citizenship Programme resulted in strengthening of women's roles in decision-making processes and family relations in the community and the city. The Gender and Citizenship Programme is the result of a partnership between the Santo Andre Municipality and the Centre for Health Studies. A total of 112 discussion groups, gender awareness courses, and campaigns geared towards combating violence against women have been held, involving approximately six thousand people. Progress has also been made in other areas including property rights on the lots and housing units being transferred to female-headed households, and improved reproductive healthcare. Community-based agents represent about 50% of all the individuals involved in implementing the Programme. This is a positive strategy, since in addition to generating employment and income for local residents, especially women, it provides a close link between the programmes and the communities' real needs. The Integrated Programme for Social Inclusion has directly benefited 3,600 families, improving their quality of life and access to social policies, work, and income, especially in achieving their rights as citizens. At the management level, the Programme's greatest triumph has been its intra- and inter-institutional integration, contributing to the operational consolidation and collaboration of the respective work teams, thereby expanding each programme's efficacy.

26.17 CASE 15: PAPER RECYCLING PROJECT (PRP), CAIRO, EGYPT

The Association for the Protection of the Environment (A.P.E.) is an NGO, situated in the Mokattam area of Cairo, Egypt. Its aim is to protect the environment and

improve the livelihood of the garbage collectors or “Zabbaleen” communities. All workers are young women from the community. They were illiterate, suffered from malnutrition, skin diseases etc. They rarely left their homes and hardly ever left the community where they were considered “second class” citizens.

To empower the young mothers there was a need to implement sustainable income generating projects. The project was inspired by the World YWCA workshop on “Waste Recycling”. The project aimed to improve the standard of living of the female garbage collectors and their families through a comprehensive educational, economic, and socio-cultural approach programme of activities. The project used a step-by-step approach aimed at empowering girls and young women to become agents of change in their communities in an interactive process involving the girls, field workers, volunteers and consultants. The project that began with virtually no budget and no equipment is now a viable, financially sustainable project. The project currently has annual revenues of close to US\$ 110,000 per year and is able to sustain itself indefinitely without the infusion of external grants. Besides the educational benefits of the project, its economic benefits include income generation for nearly 90 young women at levels that are nearly 70 percent higher than what they would earn in much less desirable employment sorting recyclable materials from waste. Social gains ranged from improved networks, health provision and empowerment of participating women in community leadership.

Source: Paper Recycling Project (PRP), Cairo, Egypt, 1994.

26.18 CASE 16: BUSES FOR WOMEN ONLY IN BANGKOK, THAILAND

In May 2000, the Bangkok Mass Transit Authority (BMTA), a state-run bus operator in the Thai capital, began a service dubbed ‘The Lady Bus’. The initiative came in response to numerous complaints by women about safety. Women, reacting to sexual harassment and crimes while commuting, had been demanding a safer travel option during rush hours. The Lady Bus accepts only women as passengers, except for accompanying sons aged less than 15 years. Bus drivers and fare collectors on the Lady Bus will be male because the BMTA wants them to protect passengers in case of emergencies.

The Lady Bus runs as every third bus on ten routes on the 30th, 31st and 1st of each month, between 4 p.m. and 9 p.m. BMTA chose the evening and night trips during salary payment dates for introductory services because these are the riskiest times for women passengers to become crime victims. The ten introductory routes ran past crowded business centres in the Thai capital, including Victory Monument, Maboonklong and Siam Centre. An increase in the number of routes and frequency of service was planned by BMTA depending on project performance.

26.19 CASE 17: POVERTY REDUCTION AMONG WOMEN THROUGH VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND MICRO-FINANCING PROGRAMME, UZBEKISTAN

In Uzbekistan, 27.5% of the population lives below the poverty line and 70% of the poor are in rural areas. Women are concentrated in the lower paying sectors and earn about 70 % compared to males. The level of female unemployment is higher than that of the males (62%). The low level of self-employment is caused by lack of necessary skills and knowledge, limited access to credit for women and low participation in establishment of new enterprises.

To improve the situation, the Business Women's Association (BWA) launched an integrated programme on poverty reduction among women, focusing on vocational training and microfinance in rural areas of Uzbekistan. The purpose of this initiative was to contribute to the poverty reduction, through empowerment of women and local economic development, assistance in the improvement of the living conditions of women, especially of those living in rural areas, and providing equal access to job and income generation opportunities.

The initiative had contributed positively to the economic situation of the country and had raised women's economic role and status by overcoming gender barriers. It had provided women with equal access to financial sources through microcredit lending programmes, small and medium entrepreneurship, job creation, institutionalization, normalization and registration of businesswomen. It had also given an opportunity for the capacity building of both BWA employees (thus contributing to BWA's institutional development) and entrepreneurs through training on various economic issues.

7,300 unemployed women attended vocational training courses and this initiative enabled them to acquire the necessary skills to become financially independent and/or to become businesswomen. This initiative was also able to advocate for a law that was approved by the parliament. With the aim of providing favourable legislative conditions for the activity of microfinance institutions, the BWA team lobbied for a decree on microfinancing "measures on development of microfinancing activity", which was adopted by Cabinet of Ministers on August 20, 2002.

BWA constantly maintained business contacts with other women's organizations of Central Asia and promoted the exchange of knowledge and experience. The results of this initiative have proved to be sustainable, and BWA of Uzbekistan is actively engaged in replicating similar activities in Kazakh, Kyrgyz and Tajik.

26.20 CASE 18: SÃO PAULO SOCIAL INCLUSION STRATEGY, BRAZIL

São Paulo is the largest city in South America, and the third largest in the world. Forty percent of Brazil's GDP (US\$ 536 billion) is produced by the city. The dimension of income inequality and social exclusion in the city of São Paulo reflects the size of this metropolis. Its urban space, as the generating centre of the country's wealth, is beginning to show more evidence of the impact of stagnation in the national economy. This is in addition to the uneven concentration of growth that characterized the historical evolution of the Brazilian economy.

Overcoming this situation seemed impossible towards the end of 2000, especially taking into account the dilapidated state machinery and heavy public debt inherited by the municipal administration. Nevertheless, work that opened new horizons was started. Human, material, and financial resources were mobilized, revealing a strategy of social inclusion and a set of basic principles to guide the government intervention.

A policy to combat urban poverty was formulated based on a decentralized structure, which targeted areas with high incidences of social exclusion. Participation of civil society, and integration of efforts among the various spheres of public administration were also key to the policy's success.

With a policy framework in place, it was possible to match available resources with empowerment projects. Dignity and citizenship were the goals of the process. A strategy that gave priority to the direct transfer of resources (and rights) to the poor in needy regions of the city was adopted. In addition, a set of related policies

was established – vocational training, participation in community activities, access to microcredit, formation of cooperatives and popular participation, creation of local development forums, and employment bureaux to match supply and demand of job opportunities – for segments that had been forgotten by the state.

These policies have benefited 320,000 families, 12% of the population in the municipality, in a period of 3 years after their implementation. Approximately 80 % of the families were women while 32 % were female-headed households. Other tangible results included qualification of 110,000 people from the municipality's training programme, formation of over 440 enterprises; elaboration of production activities within the local context, with the participation of employers representatives, trade unions, and the civil society. An employment network, involving 54 partner institutions and 15 job placement agencies was established to match newly acquired skills with the appropriate jobs.

Finally, the creation of a database and usage of computer solutions (Citizen Database - BDC) enabled access to timely and updated information on the target group and status of intervention strategies. This also served as a monitoring and evaluation tool to provide feedback about the whole process.

26.21 LESSONS LEARNED FROM THE CASE STUDIES

The following key lessons from the case studies can be elaborated.

- Empowering women increases their control over the decisions that affect their lives both within and outside the household;
- Women should be encouraged to bring their vision and leadership, knowledge and skills, views and aspirations into the development agenda from the grassroots to international levels;
- Women should be assisted in conflict situations and their participation in peace processes supported;
- Emphasis should be given to advocacy of gender-responsive legislation and constitutional revisions to increase women's opportunities to influence the direction of society and to remove obstacles to women's access to power;
- Political will is critical. Policies alone do not achieve desired outcomes. Real political will must be backed up by implementation strategies, action plans, capacity building, dedicated resources, as well as monitoring and accountability mechanisms. These elements help institutionalize gender equality.

Check Your Progress Exercise 3

Note: i) Use this space given below to answers the questions.
ii) Compare your answers with the one given at the end of this Unit.

- 1) Explain the paper re-cycle project of Cairo.

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26.22 SUMMING UP

The brief case studies presented in this Unit showed the importance of enhancing women's involvement at all levels of management, including policy-making and decision-making, focusing mainly on the implementation of the Habitat Agenda themes on "adequate shelter for all" and "sustainable human settlements development in a modernizing world".

26.23 GLOSSARY

Case studies : Case study refers to the collection and presentation of detailed information about a particular participant or small group, frequently including the accounts of subjects themselves. A form of qualitative descriptive research, the case study looks intensely at an individual or small participant pool, drawing conclusions only about that participant or group and only in that specific context.

Best Practices: Best cases of women leaders and women all over the world involved in eradicating issues of women and empowering them in all sectors.

26.24 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS EXERCISES

Check Your Progress Exercise 1

- 1) The programme shows that women can teach themselves the skills they need to improve their lives, to save money and start small businesses. Programmes based on this model can engage millions of women everywhere at costs they can afford. The no handout policy inspires motivation, pride and commitment in a programme integrating literacy, economic and legal components. Simplified books developed by partner NGOs enable newly literate women to teach each other basic skills. Within a few months they start putting them to use in ways to ensure skill retention. The Programme reaches 123,000 women in nearly 7,000 economic groups in Southern Nepal.

Check Your Progress Exercise 2

- 1) Within a short span of three years, Kudumbashree Mission has brought about a sea change in the lives of the urban poor of Kerala by converging resources, ideas and programmes of various departments through the CDS system. 169,000 poor urban women of the State have been organized into 7,848 grassroot level self-help groups. Among other laudable achievements include mobilization of savings and informal banking which has resulted in the disbursement of US\$ 1.18 million among members with a 100% repayment rate. The CDS structure has hitherto given birth to 12,991 vibrant micro enterprises, with 20,000 women owners. The urban CDSs of Kerala run remedial education centres to help out poor students in preparation for public examinations. Remedial Education Centres of the CDS structure act as 'double-edged swords' to fight poverty as they not only enhance the educational standard of the students belonging to families but also give gainful employment to educated poor women. Community Based Organizations have mobilized their members and partners to construct 21,987 houses and 20,049 toilets for the urban poor.

Check Your Progress Exercise 3

- 1) To empower the young mothers there was a need to implement sustainable income generating projects. The project was inspired by the World YWCA workshop on “Waste Recycling”. The project aims to improve the standard of living of the female garbage collectors and their families through a comprehensive educational, economic, and socio-cultural approach programme of activities. The project uses a step by step approach aimed at empowering girls and young women to become agents of change in their communities in an interactive process involving the girls, field workers, volunteers and consultants. The project that began with virtually no budget and no equipment is now a viable, financially sustainable project. The project currently has annual revenues of close to US\$ 110,000 per year and is able to sustain itself indefinitely without the infusion of external grants. Besides the educational benefits of the project, its economic benefits include income generation for nearly 90 young women at levels that are nearly 70 percent higher than what they would earn in much less desirable employment sorting recyclable materials from waste. Social gains range from improved networks, health provision and general empowerment of participating women in community leadership.

26.25 REFERENCES

Empowering Women through ICT-Based Business Initiatives: An Overview of Best Practices in E-Commerce/E-Retailing Projects, the MIT Press 2008. Published under Creative Commons Attribution Non Commercial-No Derivative Works Unreported 3.0 License. Volume 4, Number 2, Winter 2007, 43-60.

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26.26 QUESTIONS FOR REFLECTION AND PRACTICE

- 1) Trace the best practices of women in solving community problems.
- 2) Critically evaluate the role of organizational support in promoting gender-based interventions.
- 3) Suggest ways to encourage women to participate in planning, implementation and monitoring
- 4) What are the ways to make passive women leaders active?